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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 11, 1904.*

## The Week.

The great and epoch-making event of the week has been the opening of active hostilities by Japan without formal declaration of war, but not until she had withdrawn her minister from St. Petersburg. Her justification for breaking off negotiations with Russia must be sought in her belief that that Power was playing for time when she inordinately delayed answering Japan's final note. A similar excuse for attacking the Russian fleet and defences at Port Arthur without warning will be alleged, in view of Russia's steady concentration of troops and ships in the vicinity of the disputed territory of Korea, and of the fleet on its way East via Suez. Of these arguments our readers will judge for themselves, while the origin of this deplorable conflict will be found set forth in our correspondence columns to-day from two widely separated sources. But as war tends to breed war, we must go back, on the one hand, to Japan's inoculation with militarism through her defeat of China in 1895, and, on the other, to Beaconsfield's "dishonest victory" over Russia in 1878, when he shut out her triumphant army from Constantinople and forced her into that Eastern expansion which has just brought her in collision with Japan. If something of contempt for "inferior races" has characterized Russia's bad faith with China and shuffling with Japan, she is likely to pay dear for it. Her staying powers are vast, but she is now fighting at arm's length and with a nimble antagonist thoroughly trained and prepared, with a veteran army and navy. As we go to press, Japan appears to have inflicted serious damage upon her enemy's battleships, and to have begun the rapid occupation of Korea.

---

M. Delcassé has made it clear that Russia must not count upon France as an ally in this war. And the Anglo-Japanese treaty, if the whole of it has been made public, does not apply. England bound herself to come to the aid of Japan only in case she were attacked by *two* Powers. It should be unnecessary to emphasize the duty of our own Government to be absolutely neutral; yet we cannot ignore the existence of an uneasy feeling at Washington and elsewhere. Only the other day reference was made in the Senate to the fact that counsels of interference—or, at least, of a "demonstration"—in the Far East had been urged upon the Administration. That way folly lies. We have no interest except to see that our treaty rights are safe-guarded during the war and after it.

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There has hardly ever been a time when the financial situation was affected, as it is to-day, by so many striking causes at once. The war in the East, the Baltimore fire, the extraordinary results of speculation in cotton, coffee, wheat, and other agricultural products, have all to be taken into account. The effect upon the finances of the world from the war and the fire cannot be estimated; but one thing is clear—these events mean the destruction of hundreds of millions of wealth. With this capital actually wiped out, the lending capacity of the international money market is by so much restricted. This fact has to be faced; there is no getting away from it. The great losses so far taken in cotton are of a different order. No cotton has been wiped out of existence, but paper profits have risen and fallen in a most unusual manner. Wealth has merely changed hands—that is, been distributed on a new basis. The same was true of the stock-market collapse of last year. Temporary inconvenience was caused by the shifting of capital from one quarter to another, but the capital is still in existence, to be used for productive purposes. Taking all the extraordinary occurrences of the last week or two into account, the situation is one which calls for conservative action. For whether capital has actually been burned up, or has simply been redistributed on a wholesale scale, a very large number of persons who have been employing it will have less to spend in the future.

---

At last the President has won real support for his Panama *coup;* no mealy-mouthed allegation of treaties, no sentimental appeals to the general interests of civilization, but full-blooded sympathy with everything he did to the "dagoes" and vociferous regret that he had not buffeted them more vigorously, according to their deserts. Mr. Clarke, the new Democratic Senator from Arkansas, marvelled at the President's moderation. The wonder is that a man of Mr. Roosevelt's temperament ever for a moment put up with Colombian impudence, or tolerated the absurdity that Colombia had the diplomatic rights of a great Power. Senator Clarke's allusion to Warren Hastings as an instance of moderation under great temptation was not precisely happy. To begin with, it was Clive who said to a Parliamentary examiner: "By God, Mr. Chairman, at this moment I stand astonished at my own moderation"; and, next, the charge was stealing. But this unlucky parallel was hardly a blemish on the fervid eloquence of Senator Clarke. The intention is everything, and Senator Clarke's good intentions were of a sort to warm a far more critical heart than the President's.

---

Secretary Shaw's announcement that he means soon to call $45,000,000 from the national banks on account of the Panama Canal payments, will excite more serious thought at this time than would ordinarily be given it. It is easy to say that the money will simply be transferred from certain banks to others, and that the effect on the financial situation will be unimportant. Yet the fact is, the banks that are drawn on by the Treasury will conceivably have to call loans, thus hampering their present customers. But the important point is that the Secretary's announcement comes right on top of the most extraordinary increase of New York bank loans on record. In about five weeks the banks have enlarged their loans by about $102,000,000, bringing them up nearly to the billion-dollar mark. The Treasury's withdrawal of the Panama money must be pondered in connection with this fact, and it must also be remembered that this money must eventually leave the country in some form or other. The chances that the payments will fall due on an adverse exchange market have to be considered, of course. The natural tendency will be to draw gold from this country, and thus to impair the reserve capacity of American banks.

---

Very interesting international questions centre about the tiny archipelago of St. Pierre-Miquelon. These islands are a limited French possession, a bustling centre of smuggling, an almost indispensable station for French and American fishermen off the Newfoundland coast. It has long been certain that England would endeavor by treaty or purchase to extinguish the vexatious French coast rights, and it has generally been assumed that the rearrangement would provide for the ceding of the St. Pierre group to Newfoundland or to Great Britain direct. Such a consummation is brought measurably nearer by the confirmation of the Anglo-French convention for arbitration. Should these islands become British, our fishermen would lose their only sure foothold in Newfoundland waters, and the fisheries question might become again acute. This consideration has led Senator Lodge to ask whether the Monroe Doctrine would not prevent the transfer of these islands to any European Power. We feel that the question is of academic in-

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terest only. It would be a rash Administration, indeed, that would regard the amicable cession of these scraps of land from one friendly Power to another as an unfriendly act. Apparently, the Canadians take Senator Lodge's divagations with unnecessary seriousness, not realizing how gratifying a reputation for aggressive patriotism may be acquired by stretching the "Doctrine" till it sings "Hail Columbia."

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Whatever else may be said about the choice of Mr. Isidor Rayner as Senator from Maryland, it is very obvious that it vindicates Rear-Admiral Schley. Mr. Rayner conducted the defence of the Rear-Admiral from Maryland so gallantly, in the face of great odds, that the court of inquiry disagreed by a vote of two to one, the majority holding against Admiral Schley. We are certain, therefore, that Rear-Admiral Schley's ardent supporters will promptly see in Mr. Rayner's elevation to the Senate a proper rebuke to the Navy Department and the other "detractors" of his client. To the public at large, the fact that Mr. Rayner is avowedly antagonistic to Senator Gorman will be a matter of greater interest. The influence of that self-appointed "leader" of the Democracy is and always has been for evil. His present scheme to disfranchise the negroes of Maryland in order to entrench his party is but a sample of his political methods. Should Mr. Rayner stand for better things in State and nation, the smashing defeat of Senator Gorman would be a matter for widespread public satisfaction. In Congress and while Attorney-General of Maryland, as by his stand for sound money, Mr. Rayner made himself favorably known.

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Rear-Admiral Converse, chief of the Bureau of Equipment, is, according to ex-Secretary Long, one of the best officers of the navy. And Mr. Long adds: "I should not hesitate to say that the presumption is that anything he does is right." Magnanimity could no further go, for this tribute to Rear-Admiral Converse followed on the heels of the announcement that he had debarred Mr. Long's book, 'The New American Navy,' from all the man-of-war libraries. The alleged reason for this discrimination is that the book criticises President Roosevelt's action while Assistant Secretary. Until this is officially confirmed, it must, of course, be accepted with reserve. It may be that the Rear-Admiral feels aggrieved because his picture was omitted from the gallery of naval worthies found in Mr. Long's volume. For our part, we shall attribute no such petty motive to him. We prefer to believe that the Admiral, in keeping with the present tendency of our democracy, has a fine nose for leze-majesty. We all know what evils arise from the license of the press in daring to criticise the President, and how such criticism and the newspaper cartoons encourage anarchists and socialists. But, bad as this is, it is nothing to the offence of an ex-Cabinet officer in remarking unfavorably upon certain incidents in the career of our present Executive. Shall such treasonable matter be put into the hands of our battleship crews? Not while Rear-Admiral Converse is on deck!

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We know, of course, that, where the flag goes up, it never, never comes down, and that it brings the blush of shame to the cheek of every American to hear such a thing even hinted at; but, just the same, the starry banner came down in Cuba on Thursday, as our last military detachment withdrew. It came down, too, while words of grateful appreciation were spoken by the President of the Cuban Republic. He did not once reproach us for having lost a splendid business chance, or for having been recreant to the great Imperialist duty of land-grabbing and pledge-breaking. Indeed, even our own Jingoes are swelling with complacency over the honorable and liberty-loving way in which we have conducted ourselves in Cuba. Hauling down the flag hath its victories no less renowned than those of running it up. The experience is valuable. We may be led to seek like glory elsewhere. The acclamations we are receiving from the people of Cuba would be redoubled from the Filipinos if we were to leave them also to work out their own destinies as freemen.

---

Almost at the time King Edward was making his unprecedented allusion to the cotton situation, in his speech from the throne, the staple was acting in a way to discredit Mr. Sully's recent statement that the high price was not the result of manipulation. When the panic of May 9, 1901, occurred in the stock market, there was no doubt that the real end of the bull movement had been reached. It is too early to make such a prediction regarding the cotton boom, but the drop of 136 points in the market on February 2 was adequate preparation for anything that might occur hereafter. Regarding the real statistical position of cotton, there is still a great deal of uncertainty; but there is no longer a particle of doubt that the astounding rise of the last two months has been due chiefly to speculation. Not legitimate demand, but manipulative effort by professional market operators, has created the present situation. The whole world is now waiting to see if they will be able to convert their paper profits into cash. It is clear that tremendous losses have already been taken in cotton, and that more will have to follow, whether the price go up or down.

The lie direct seems to have passed between the American Steel Foundries Company and its expert accountants. Its securities have been struck from the Stock Exchange list because the statement made to the Exchange at the time of listing overstated the cash assets by $500,000. On Tuesday week the directors of the Steel Foundries Company gave out a statement charging that the expert accountants had misinterpreted a telephone conversation and were responsible for the overstatement. But now come forward Messrs. Jones, Cæsar & Co., the accountants, and state that they were directly authorized by Mr. Max Pam, counsel of the company, to add $500,000 to the working capital which was "to be provided by the vendors." Having made the required change, the amended balance sheet was sent to Mr. Pam. Now that the matter has reached this point, the public may obtain a flood of light on certain phases of Trust-promoting regarding which there has been very little real knowledge in the past. So far as the present discussion has gone, Mr. Max Pam and the Steel Foundries Company have been placed in a most disagreeable position. But Messrs. Jones, Cæsar & Co. have, on their own showing, nothing to be proud of so far as their part in the matter is concerned. They seem to have put down about what the promoters told them. Charging up as an asset capital "to be provided by vendors" is not the kind of bookkeeping that commends itself to the governors of the Stock Exchange.

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The language used by the Steel Foundries Company has a striking resemblance to that employed in the Whitaker Wright trial. For instance, "the witness [Wright] added that the accountant had sworn that he had put 'ex-div' instead of 'cum-div.' without authority. It should have been 'cum-div.' A mistake had been made, and he admitted that the £321,000 ought not to have figured in the Globe's accounts." The public are beginning to learn that the liability of "expert accountants" to error is something fearful. Ever since Trust financiering methods began to be legally investigated, some months ago, one insinuation after another of a discreditable nature has been thrown at the experts by persons trying to clear their own skirts. Messrs. Jones, Cæsar & Co. are, however, about the first among the accountants to make formal rejoinder, yet perhaps the case for the experts would have been stronger if they had remained silent. However, it would be unjust to generalize from one case. Instances can be multiplied of a directly opposite nature. Experts have declined to affix their names unless large sums were spent for physical examinations of properties under consideration; and other stringent precautionary measures

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have been taken. Still, as every need is apt to create the means of its fulfilment, so it begins to appear that the peculiar methods of our Trust promoters have raised up a sufficient number of "expert accountants" to satisfy the needs of "modern financiering."

In the many expressions of sorrow evoked by Mr. William C. Whitney's death, it is easy to detect one note of especial regret. He did not fulfil his first promise. With such extraordinary talents and aptitude for political life as he early displayed, it was unfortunate that either the Bryan extrusion of ability from his party, or his own taste, took Mr. Whitney out of public life, and led him to devote his uncommon capacity, meant for mankind, to mere money-making. Politically, he will be remembered mainly for his active part in rejuvenating the Democratic party under Mr. Cleveland; for his success in the Navy Department; for his advocacy of civil-service reform and sound public finance; for his brilliant leadership in the Cleveland campaign of 1892. The hearts and hopes of many went out to him. His death serves to make more conspicuous and lamentable the lack in his party of inspiring leaders such as he might have been.

The arguments in favor of the bill to abolish co-education of whites and blacks in Kentucky, when it was still in committee of the House, were sufficiently stale. The State Superintendent of Instruction could only bring forward the old bogie that, "if the Berea idea was carried to its logical conclusion, there would be social equality of the races in Kentucky." A Berea merchant charged Mr. Frost, as pure and high-minded a man as ever lived, with circulating literature of a questionable character, hinted at sensational happenings in the college of which he had no proof, and finally damned Mr. Frost utterly by saying: "Mr. Frost entertains negroes at his home and at the college dormitory, giving them the best that the great facilities at his command can afford." Surely, a capital offence! The enlightened clergy were also in evidence in the person of a Rev. Mr. Oliver, who represents Lynn County in the Legislature. Mr. Oliver said that if he were a member of the committee, "he would not permit President Frost to come before it, no more than he would permit President Roosevelt to eat with his family." The author of the bill explained that it was drawn to "prevent the contamination of the white children of Kentucky!"

The City Treasurer of Richmond, Va., reports some interesting figures which show that the disfranchising laws have had unexpected results in that city. One of the requirements of the new Constitution is the payment by voters of a poll tax. This, it was thought, would bar out some of the negroes who might manage to qualify in spite of the other disfranchising clauses. It now appears that of the 22,000 male adults assessed for taxes in Richmond, only 6,264 have taken the trouble to pay the poll tax and qualify. In addition, there are some 800 Confederate veterans to whom the poll-tax law does not apply. Of the 6,000 colored voters, 5,500 have been deprived of the suffrage, so that the actual voters cannot number one-third of the male taxpayers. So far as local elections go, therefore, Richmond is to be ruled hereafter by a small minority of the whites. What opportunities this situation affords to unscrupulous politicians we need not point out. "The colored people," says their organ, the Richmond *Planet*, in commenting upon this situation, "view with satisfaction the result of the [disfranchising] effort, and when they see white men sitting on the curbstone just as much disfranchised as the most worthless negro, they cannot help smiling. The law has proven a two-edged sword which cuts both ways."

Pennsylvania's unhappy Governor finds that his company on the Supreme Bench is not wanted by the men already there. The Philadelphia *Press* showed that the Governor temporarily filled the vacant Supreme Court justiceship with a Democrat after a respectable Republican lawyer, Lyman D. Gilbert, had declined to become his tool and hold the place during the rest of the unexpired term of the late Justice McCullom. For this service Mr. Gilbert was to be made Attorney-General. In other words, the Governor undertook to bargain in State offices for his own advantage, and that after he had solemnly declared in a campaign speech that, if elected, he would serve out his full term as Governor. The revelation was a little bit too much for the Supreme Court justices, one of whom, Judge Hay Brown, has publicly declared that the Governor's low intrigue is "a menace to the safety of the judiciary." Meanwhile, the Governor is apparently as unconscious of wrongdoing as he was when he published his ridiculous approval of the press "gag" law a year ago. He does not think it worth while to deny his offer to Mr. Gilbert, as he can see nothing wrong in it. Of course, the deal by which Pennypacker is to turn over the Governorship to a low Quay spoilsman, "Oleo" Brown, and obtain the desired election to the Supreme Court bench, is still contemplated. The bosses say he shall have it, and the people can be made to vote the Republican ticket in overwhelming numbers, no matter what the party's offence against decency.

Extraordinary complexity characterizes the Parliamentary situation at Westminster. Mr. John Redmond—faithful to his warning that the Land bill was merely received "on account"—has stormily bidden the Government give Home Rule for Ireland or lose the Irish vote. Mr. Wyndham forthwith denied that the Government would grant a Roman Catholic university in Ireland, apparently refusing the last possible payment on account, and virtually telling the Irish to do what they chose. Under ordinary circumstances, the loss of the Irish vote would mean the prompt downfall of the Cabinet, but the refurbishing of the Home Rule grudge may turn back wavering Liberal Unionists to Mr. Balfour. It certainly bears out Mr. Chamberlain's assertion that the issue is not dead, and gives a certain retrospective justification to his ousting of the Duke of Devonshire from control. The plight of these Liberal Unionists, torn between their horror of Home Rule and their disapproval of the dear loaf, is by no means enviable, and nobody can tell how the balance may swing. Suffice it to say that the Government, with the Irish ready to desert at the drop of the handkerchief, is not likely to be long embarrassed with its "big brute majority."

The recent speech of the Chancellor of the Exchequer in London was disappointing in one important particular. He feared it would not be his happy lot this year to propose those remissions of taxation which it was hoped he would foretell on that occasion. Economy was writ large on every line of his discourse. The country had passed through a series of very prosperous years; there had been a great increase in the revenue; but the expenditures had mounted up about as fast as the revenue. It was pleasant in the abstract to contemplate an increase of £5,000,000 in the last ten years in the post-office estimates, an enlargement of like amount in the charge for national education, and an increase of £4,000,000 in the aid granted to local rates, to say nothing of the still larger increases for army and navy purposes. But there were signs that the next few years would not be quite so prosperous as the last few. In short, the Chancellor of the Exchequer thought the time had come to "watch our expenditure closely." To Americans this seems niggardly. The likelihood of a deficit stares our Treasury in the face, but with us that is only an incentive to added extravagance. The leading feature of Mr. Chamberlain's speech, however, was the assertion that the heavy increase in national and local indebtedness had greatly depreciated the value of public securities. There he stopped; but he might have gone on and told his audience how large a part his father, the late Colonial Secretary, had played in that movement.

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### *A "SAFE" PRESIDENT.*

Mr. Root boldly took up the anti-Roosevelt challenge, in his speech at the Union League on February 3. Some may think he unnecessarily advertised the charge that Mr. Roosevelt is not considered "safe." There is such a thing as putting the objections so strongly that your answers to them are forgotten. Dr. Chalmers once stated the argument of the atheist so powerfully that some of his hearers feared he had denied the faith. So it may be that Mr. Root will have insinuated doubt of the President into some minds that had never harbored it before. But this was only a mistake, if a mistake at all, of oratorical tactics. The ex-Secretary's intention was as clear as his courage. Standing at the very centre of opposition to Mr. Roosevelt, he condemned it and defied it: "You say he is an unsafe man. I tell you he really is the great conservator of property and of rights."

The two things dwelt upon by Mr. Root were the President's attitude towards labor unions on the one hand, and towards Trusts on the other. As to both, we think, as we have made it abundantly plain before, that his defence is sound. Mr. Roosevelt, it is true, has displayed a good deal of vacillation in dealing with organized labor. At first he coquetted with it and flattered it; then he told it some wholesome truths; at last, when it came to the demand that Government employment should be "unionized," he issued a flat defiance. With his final position there can be no quarrel. As for the suit which he ordered against the Northern Securities Company to discover if it was violating the law, that was presented to him, primarily, as an official duty which he could not shirk; and, in the result, his action was a public service. It helped check a passion of speculation threatening to mount to absolute mania. It was one of the things which caused conservative bankers and financiers to put a curb-bit on markets running wild, and undoubtedly aided in bringing about that slow financial reaction, which, while bitter in the act to many, was salutary for the country, saving us as it did from the frightful panic which would have been sure to come otherwise.

Thus far, the argument is with Mr. Root. But he did not allude to those other aspects of Mr. Roosevelt's conduct in office which lead many to shake their heads over him. For one thing, the impression has been made that the President has not a nice regard for the law. We have had other Presidents who were not lawyers, but they were careful to take the opinion of skilled legal advisers. Mr. Roosevelt does not appear to do this. He seems to have a light-minded way of snapping his fingers at precedents and statutes. There was in the House, the very day Mr. Root was speaking, a disagreeable reminder of Mr. Roosevelt's rash promise, when Governor of New York, to refuse to deliver up a man involved in a Kentucky murder. That is the kind of thing which gives sober men pause. It helps to give currency to Professor Nelson's definition of Mr. Roosevelt's mind as one "essentially lawless."

A minor illustration is furnished just now by an incident in which Secretary Root's own withers are not unwrung. After long prodding, the Senate has elicited the fact that the President issued recess commissions to Gen. Wood and others on December 7, 1903—when, in fact, there was no recess. In other words, what the Senate was unanimous in considering illegal, what the House by its vote on the mileage resolution showed that it thought to be wholly irregular, that the President did. He impetuously "took the chances." But Americans do not like to have high officials take chances with the law.

It is unquestionably, however, the Panama recklessness which has most shaken faith in the President as a "safe" man. Here we have to do not merely with the deed, but with its defence. Mr. Roosevelt, with an appalling frankness which took away the breath of even the *Sun*, admitted that he had broken with precedent, and had no precise legal warrant for his course, but explained that he had pursued it in the interest of "civilization." Now, that is a perilous form of sealed orders to put into the hands of any man—most of all into the hands of an Executive who talks big navies, and glories in all the phraseology of war. Men could not be blamed for asking what would come next. It could not be imagined that a chivalrous President would venture beyond the law simply because Colombia was helpless before him. As was said in the Senate, the real danger was that he would extend the same principles of action elsewhere, would pluck some mighty Power by the beard and involve us in a war that would shake the earth. Here is the most substantial ground which Mr. Roosevelt has given people for saying that he is not safe. Our foreign relations have become immensely complicated. They require handling at once delicate and firm. The Panama affair has filled many with a painful fear that Mr. Roosevelt is unfitted by both temperament and training for that high function of the Presidency.

Mr. John Morley has lately set forth, with his customary grave eloquence, the necessity of "fixed convictions" in a statesman. There is a great difference between a fixed conviction and a fixed idea. For the latter, with all its implications of headlong haste and unreasoning persistence, Mr. Roosevelt appears to have too great an affinity. But what his position requires is large and fortified conviction, not to be shaken by clamor or moved by impulse, but calmly and surely to be applied to every question that presents itself for decision. Weak in that quality of steady reason, Mr. Roosevelt's activities have been too often of the galvanic—not to say volcanic—order. Hence he has too much laid himself open to the reproach which Mr. Morley addresses to the ruler who "will not remain quiet on the land, and will not venture forth upon the unplumbed ocean with the daring of the navigator, but who invites his party and the country on to neither land nor sea, but to a quaking bog."

### *THE ATTACK UPON BEREA COLLEGE.*

A bill to kill Berea College, one of the notable institutions of the South, has been passed by the lower house of the Kentucky Legislature and is now pending in the Senate. The measure does not specifically attack Berea, but since it forbids the co-education of white and colored youth within the State of Kentucky, it is plain that its real object is the destruction of an institution which for nearly fifty years has kept the torch of learning burning brightly in what is one of the most benighted sections of the United States. President Frost has properly announced that, if the courts uphold this iniquitous law, Berea will cease to exist. There was no other course open to him, for, in the original by-laws of the college, it is stated: "This college shall be under an influence strictly Christian, and, as such, opposed to sectarianism, slaveholding, caste, and every other wrong institution or practice." The men who wrote this into the constitution did so at the risk of their lives. Recreant would their successors be if they calmly submitted to the division of its work in deference to a modern caste spirit as bitter as any with which their predecessors had to contend.

The sum and substance of Berea's offending is that, of its seven hundred students, one hundred and fifty have colored skins, and that blacks and whites have studied side by side without any of the evils which the instigators of race prejudice in the South are constantly predicting as inevitable with social intercourse. There has not been the slightest tendency to intermarriage. There is no social compulsion. No student is compelled to intimacy with any one who is distasteful to him. Colored and white students do not room together. Indeed, President Frost has been able to assert that "this arrangement has never produced a collision or a scandal." "And," he continued, "the relations of the two races are more friendly, pure, and satisfactory in the sphere of Berea's influence than anywhere else in the South."

How great that sphere of influence is may be judged from the fact that Berea does not content itself merely with the education given at the college proper,

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but, by means of travelling libraries, horseback lecturers, and tent meetings, carries on a most valuable "extension" work. Five or six thousand persons gather at its commencement, riding in from their rude and poverty-stricken mountain cabins on mules and horses, and clad in the homespun of their great-grandfathers. In the vicinity are nine large counties of Kentucky without a mile of railroad. Their inhabitants are among the purest Anglo-Saxons in this country. Many of their customs—even their songs—have been directly handed down without change from generation to generation since the first settlement of this wild Appalachian region. Such schools as exist are of the poorest; the best are of the kind so well described by John Fox, jr., in his 'Little Shepherd of Kingdom Come.' If it is a population purely American, it is a population singularly backward. The thirty-five mountain counties in Kentucky have an area larger than Massachusetts and Connecticut together, and in this wide territory the influence of Berea College is, educationally speaking, paramount. There are other excellent schools, like the white institution at Jackson, in Breathitt County; but none begins to compare with Berea for usefulness, for extent of territory influenced, or for a standard curriculum.

It is well known that the number of negroes in the territory surrounding Berea is very small. Of the 476,000 residents in the mountain counties in 1900, only 12,000 were negroes, and seventeen per cent. of these live in the few large towns. In no sense, therefore, can the racial situation be compared to the conditions further South. The bogie of the danger to race "purity" cannot be effectively worked here. The white homes of this region are not subject to the dangers existing in some more populous districts. The action of the Kentucky House is, therefore, the merest toadying to the narrowest prejudices of the whites in the other two-thirds of the State, and it would kill the institution which is doing more than any other influence to free the State from the ignorance and lawlessness for which it is notorious throughout the Union, to the detriment of its industrial development and of its law-abiding inhabitants in its richer sections. At best, it is an attempt to say to the mountain negroes that they shall hereafter do without a higher schooling merely because of their color. We repeat, President Frost did well to make it clear that Berea's work cannot be confined or restricted to one part of the mountain population.

The right of a liberal college to admit to its classrooms any students it deems worthy is as sacred as the right of its professors to free speech within their classrooms. The recent great triumph of academic freedom in Trinity College at Durham, N. C., over sectional prejudice was rightly hailed as one of the most notable events in the educational annals of the South. Should the Senate conspire with the House, and the Governor approve, and the courts sustain the wiping out of Berea College because of its 170 colored students, we should have to take note of as grievous a retrogression as the Trinity victory was a notable advance. In 1859 the teaching at Berea was paralyzed by pro-slavery violence. The present method of imposing one's prejudices upon others, if more humane and more difficult to meet, is every whit as great a disgrace to the State, and is all the more amazing in view of the fact that this same Legislature of Kentucky had just indefinitely postponed the proposal to disfranchise the colored voters of the State.

## *GERMAN TROUBLES IN AFRICA.*

The uprising of the inhabitants of her Southwest African colony has brought Germany for the first time face to face with one of the usual experiences of colonizing nations. The stupid natives not only decline to fall down and worship the superior race which intends to exploit them, but have actually taken up arms in the hope of expelling the white invaders with their autocratic semi-military methods of government. Having risen without the slightest previous notice, and at the time of year which for climatic reasons is most unfavorable for Europeans to undertake military movements, they are in a position to cause a great deal of trouble. Already one hundred colonists are reported slain, several settlements are surrounded and in dire need, and the arrival of sufficient reinforcements is still far away.

Speaking in the Reichstag on January 18, Chancellor von Bülow did not conceal the gravity of the situation, news of which had been in the possession of the Colonial Office only for a week, although the revolt began months ago. It affected, he admitted, the most thickly settled portion of the colony, and had even then destroyed the fruits of a decade of industry. The greater part of the settlers had already lost all their possessions, and were fighting for their lives in the stations to which they had fled from their outlying farms. Most serious of all, the outbreak occurred when Gov. Leutwein, with the greater part of the colonial forces, was twenty days' march to the south of the scene of the uprising, endeavoring to subdue the uprising of the Bondelzwarts tribes, and the forces in the colony were therefore greatly reduced. In order to put down the insurrection the Government ordered the cruiser *Habicht* to land all its available men in conjunction with a regular relief force of 135 men which arrived at Swakopmund (Walfisch Bay) on February 3. A battalion of 550 men was dispatched from Hamburg on the 21st of January, and 500 more have since sailed for the scene of hostilities.

Upon the reasons for the uprising the Chancellor could throw no light. There was "no visible cause," he said, in the opinion of experts familiar with the afflicted colony. But light has since been thrown upon this question in some articles contributed to the *Frankfurter Zeitung* by a traveller who had just returned from the affected districts. It is the old sordid story of cruelty and rapacious greed on the part of the civilizers. For years past, it appears, German traders, frequently discharged soldiers, have travelled among the natives, selling unlimited quantities of goods upon credit by such underhand methods that the natives had no conception of the debts they were piling up. Then the traders turned upon them, charging exorbitant prices for the goods sold and demanding usurious rates of interest. Unable to pay these outrageous bills in default, the Hereros have found themselves forced to sacrifice their entire droves of cattle or large tracts of land. As a result, the tribe, numbering 80,000 souls, has become impoverished to such a degree that it has revolted in despair. The truth of this explanation is confirmed by a German colonial newspaper, the *South African Gazette*. As contributory causes may be mentioned the overbearing conduct of the German officers, and the shooting of a native by one of them. But to explain the fury with which the Hereros have attacked their overlords, it is only necessary to cite the misdeeds of the traders.

Gloomy as is this picture of unmasked Imperialism, it is, of course, merely a repetition of what has happened in every other portion of the globe where the white man has settled in order to exploit the natives and steal their lands from them. But the German over-sea experiments afford particularly interesting object-lessons of the benefits of what may be called "hothouse colonies." There was no demand among the German people for the acquisition of foreign territory, least of all for the seizure or purchase of lands from which the stream of immigration persistently turns away. But Bismarck and his successors insisted upon a policy of tropical expansion in the hope of diverting emigrants from foreign nations to lands covered by the German flag. They were, moreover, firmly of the opinion that no nation could be truly great unless it possessed colonies. Hence, they acquired in Africa and the South Seas an area of 1,024,262 square miles, no less than five times the size of Continental Germany. Yet, after years of effort on the part of Government, colonial companies, and societies for the encouragement of emigration, there are now only 5,125 Germans, men,

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women, and children, settled in this vast territory. This number includes 1,567 officials and soldiers, 637 traders, 779 artisans and laborers, and 1,010 planters and cultivators.

For the year 1904 the Imperial subsidies for these colonies are reckoned at $3,578,500. In addition, the German taxpayer must foot the bills for the Kiaochau colony, which amount to $3,135,000; for the Colonial Department of the Foreign Office, for the colonial posts and telegraph lines, for the mail subsidies, etc. It is estimated that the various colonial ventures have thus far cost the nation 75 millions of dollars since 1884, with the net result of spreading about 6,000 Germans over the territories mentioned. It is hardly necessary to add that the resulting trade in no way reimburses the mother country. The export and import business of the colonies with the German Customs Union during 1902 amounted only to a little over one-third of their total trade. It is quite in keeping with other imperialistic tendencies the world over, that the German exports consist largely of spirituous liquors and tinned foods. As in the Philippines, beer follows the flag.

Were the question merely one of dollars and cents, the rest of the world might well look on this kind of colonizing with amusement. But it cannot blink the fact that the Teutonic race has once more essayed the management of those inferiors upon whom it ever looks down with supreme contempt and pity, only to fail utterly. The Germans have run nearly the whole gamut. First seize territory, then exploit, plunder, and rob its inhabitants. Next, express surprise when they hate you. When they rise in a hopeless attempt to free themselves, start your punitive expeditions and blot them out for their insolence and their atrocities. As Prince Henry so humanely put it to the departing marines at Kiel: "Germany expects every bullet to find its billet."

### *A TRANSIT OF IDEALISM.*

Columbia University is to lose the services of Professors Woodberry and MacDowell—one a graceful poet and subtle critic, the other one of the greatest lyrical composers of our time. The University can ill afford to lose them. They represented a definitely artistic and creative principle that contrasted sharply with and did something to redeem the pedestrian scholarship and dilettante cleverness which rule at Columbia as elsewhere. It is unlucky, too, that these brother artists should both be leaving because they find the tone of Columbia uncongenial and its conditions unfavorable to their work. In Professor Woodberry's case this is well understood; Professor MacDowell has not hesitated to express dissatisfaction with the whole tendency of the University. Culture and idealism, he asserts, are generally lacking, the administration has been slow in effecting plans for organizing a school of the arts, the students are generally indifferent to artistic matters, and, in this respect, are graduated mere barbarians. So he and Professor Woodberry feel quite justified in quitting the academic ranks and dwelling apart in their idealistic tents.

Evidently there is a larger issue here than in the question whether these gentlemen are justly aggrieved. Nobody will doubt that their analysis of the deficiencies of education at Columbia has truth in it, though the wisdom of their expressions and the necessity for their resignation may be questioned seriously; and it is certain also that the charge of undue disregard of the arts as means of culture lies not only against Columbia, but against practically every university in the land. All our college graduates and many of our university doctors are complete barbarians, if lack of intelligent enthusiasm for the arts is to serve as criterion of barbarism. In nearly all our academic communities the gentlemen who are shaking the sordid Morningside dust from their artistic sandals would find themselves equally strangers, speaking a language hardly understanded of their colleagues. Our colleges, in the elegant idiom of the Middle West, are distinctly not "culture shops," and most of them are uneasy residences for "culture sharps" such as Professors Woodberry and MacDowell, with all respect, undoubtedly are.

Now, the colleges, and possibly the apostles of culture too, are the poorer for this unhappy alienation. The education carried away by our average bachelors belies preposterously their degree in arts, and, furthermore, it ministers only very inadequately to the more refined pleasures of life. But these admitted shortcomings are not wholly the fault of the colleges. Sheer poverty, for example, confines the academic diet to substantials. So many languages, so much science, must be provided, and often are furnished with difficulty. Superior instruction in literature and the fine arts is as little practicable at many of our colleges as beautiful wood-carving in a log-cabin rising against imminent winter. And, of course, we can teach only such students as will come, and man our faculties with such scholars as may be had. To desire that Professor Norton or Professor Woodberry should be infinitely subdivided and distributed impartially to our academic commonwealth, is to wish the excellent, but the impossible. And we cannot so much as be certain that either would really like to be broadcast though culture were the gainer.

And here is approached a delicate question which should be discussed entirely apart from Columbia applications. Our apostles of culture are sometimes "ill to live wi'." Their tastes have removed them far from the average feeling, and in many cases their superiority has resulted in an isolation unfortunate for them and the community. It is hard for one who has dwelt constantly with the ideal to realize that his particular academic ideal, for instance, must wait upon mere dollars and cents. One who is essentially a professor of things in general may very well forget, when his head is in the clouds, that his excursions are crossing the toes of nearly all his academic colleagues. In other words, there must be a certain element of give and take between the idealist and the machinery of which he has voluntarily become a part. Ivory towers are not practical college buildings, nor even appropriate ornaments for busy college greens. Even idealists cannot dispense with the courage of their idealism. They must retain a sufficient affection for the great uncultured academic mass to live with it on terms of amity, and they must maintain something of the confidence of bishops *in partibus*, trusting that the heathen in their charge are susceptible to the workings of artistic grace.

Possibly the way of these missionaries of culture has been made the harder by the abundance of prophets, falsely so-called. "Culture courses" have become a by-word in all our colleges. Lazy and languishing gentlemen have made culture seem an easy if not very entertaining voyage upon an interminable flux of words. Undoubtedly sad experience has made too many college presidents believe that culture means over-paid gush, and that its exponents are sheer luxuries in a university. Yet, in sober fact, the best investment Columbia has made for years was the appointment of men like Woodberry and MacDowell. In the strictest business sense, they have done more to enhance the prestige of the University throughout the world of art and letters than the tenfold capitalization of their salaries could have done in any other way. It is possible that they have magnified the infelicities of their position. We assume that Columbia realizes the extent of its loss and will try to repair it. In fact, President Butler has included in his last appeal for an endowment a project for the building up of a school of the arts. Hence these recent changes are really a new appeal to generous New Yorkers.

It is truly a serious matter to face the fact that so vast an educational mechanism is making very little for culture. The presence of great libraries and museums in New York imposes an especial duty of interpretation upon Columbia University. If such matters are really pondered, the transit of the idealists will bring its prompt compensation; and one cannot grudge any artist his liberty. With a poet and a composer jointly escaped from academic bonds, why

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may we not hope for the long-delayed American opera, or at least for another series of deathless songs? As for President Butler, his philosophy will sustain him among his barbarians. He will recall that the two London exquisites whom Du Maurier represents as disputing whether Botticelli be a wine or a cheese, were in all probability Oxford men, and of no mean college.

## THE EASTERN CRISIS AND ITS ORIGIN.

TOKYO, January 11, 1904.

An acute crisis now exists in the Orient. The situation is in all respects, save active hostilities, that of war. Urgency measures have been adopted. Strenuous labors are completing all naval and military preparations for war. Every one here regards war as practically inevitable. A huge depression of values on the Stock Exchange reflects the gravity of the situation. Before this can reach you by post, the definitive issue—war or peace—will probably be known. In any event, a summary statement of the events which have shaped the situation will assist a clear understanding of it.

The premises, though widely published in fragmentary form, must be clearly and connectedly grasped in order to understand the nature of the present crisis. Eight years ago Japan waged a successful war against China, for the purpose of ending an intolerable protectorate exercised by China over Korea—acting in this matter very much as the United States did in waging a war of liberation for Cuba. At the end of that war, Japan actually occupied the greater part of Mantchuria as an indemnity for the war; and China in her treaty of peace had definitely ceded the territory to Japan. Russia, alleging that occupation of Mantchuria by Japan was a menace to the peace of the Orient, then secured the coöperation of Germany and France to oust Japan from Mantchuria. The sequel to this was unopposed occupation of Kiao-chau by Germany and of Port Arthur by Russia, and the consequent real and constant peril to the peace of the Far East. Meanwhile, Korea was tacitly and generally recognized to be an exclusive "sphere of influence" of Japan, but open to general trade. The Nishi-Rosen convention of 1898 was intended by Japan to secure, so far as concerned Russia, immunity against aggression in Korea. The necessity of preventing ascendency in Korea of any potential enemy is tradition and a cardinal principle of Japanese diplomacy. Its maintenance is regarded by Japan as even more vital to her than maintenance of the Monroe Doctrine is regarded as vital by the United States.

The next chapter opens with the "Boxer" outbreak in 1900. After that disturbance ended, the several Powers concerned in restoring order in China adopted a definitive treaty of peace, according to which it was agreed to respect, even to maintain, the integrity of China. Russia was a signatory of this treaty. In consonance with the requirements of her treaty obligations, Russia surprised those familiar with her shrewd and unscrupulous aggressive policy by voluntarily fixing a term within which, after ratification of the treaty, she would evacuate Mantchuria; her troops having been meanwhile retained there to guard her railways. When this term expired last April, Russia had neither withdrawn her troops nor evinced any serious intention to do so. In view of special interests involved, Japan pressed Russia with inquiries to ascertain her real purpose concerning Mantchuria. Since both England and the United States were also manifesting great interest in the question, it is probable that Russia was especially inclined to make a satisfactory reply. In any event, Russia then assured Japan that evacuation would be accomplished within a further period of six months. By October 8, the date thus fixed, Russian pledges were still unkept. On the contrary, Russia had in the interim been busy building fortifications, sending out troops and supplies, adding to her Asiatic fleet; had even occupied new posts, and given evidences of an intention, not merely to remain in Mantchuria, but also to extend the scope of her aggressions even to Korea.

Since that time, Japan has patiently, yet with the persistency born of vital motives, pressed Russia in negotiation with a view to arrive at a peaceful settlement of differences, and to obtain a guarantee for the protection of interests which Japan considers vital to herself. Russia has met this surprisingly moderate and conciliatory attitude with a policy of temporizing and evasion, delaying her replies, evading questions, and dragging in irrelevant issues. She has, meanwhile, continued to build fortifications, to forward troops and supplies, to send out every available warship, in every possible way to strengthen her grip on the bone of contention and to perfect her naval and military equipment. Thus, while nominally negotiating with Japan as a friendly Power, she has all the while added irritation and provocation to her insolent disregard of Japan's rights and claims. In the meantime, Japan strictly observed all proprieties, and did not, until the last week of the year, move a single soldier, add a single ship to her navy, or otherwise make a single menacing special preparation.

Actual crisis resulted immediately from steps taken on and after December 28. On that date four important Imperial ordinances were issued. Two of these relate to the superior organization of the army and navy. They are intended primarily (1) to secure efficient coöperation between military and naval arms of the service, and (2) to accord to the chief of each branch of the service equal voice and equal access to the Sovereign in offering advice and considering plans of campaign. (Hitherto, the Chief of the General Staff had a right to consult directly with the Emperor, while the Chief of the Naval Board had not that right.) The other two ordinances provide: (1) for raising funds to meet the "expenses required for the maintenance of the armaments," and (2) for speedy completion of the Seul-Fusan Railway. For the first purpose, the Government is empowered "to raise temporary loans, to draw upon the funds belonging to Special Accounts, and to issue Treasury Notes." The only limitations on this power are: (1) that rates of interest on obligations incurred shall not exceed 6 per cent.; and (2) that the maximum period of redemption shall be for temporary loans two years, and for Treasury Notes five years. The "Funds belonging to Special Accounts" aggregate something over a hundred million yen. In order to expedite construction of the Seul-Fusan Railway, the Government undertakes two obligations: (1) It guarantees principal and interest, not exceeding 6 per cent., on bonds issued by the company within the limit of ten million yen; (2) in view of the fact that haste will increase the cost of constructing the railway, the Government grants to the company a cash subsidy of 1,750,000 yen, with a further contingent grant of 450,000 yen. Loans are authorized to raise the funds for this subsidy. In order to protect itself and to assure the execution of its purposes, the Government reserves the right to appoint three managing directors and to maintain official inspection of the works and the accounts of the company. In event of military occupation of Korea or of military operations in Mantchuria by Japan, the strategic value of this railway would be immense; hence the urgency of its construction at this juncture.

Coincident with the issue of the Imperial ordinances, most extraordinary activity in all military and naval circles began. It was announced that the usual New Year holiday of ten days would be this year contracted to a single day for arsenals, dockyards, and many Government offices. The newspapers published reports that troops of the large garrisons at Sendai and Kumamoto were ordered to be ready for a winter campaign, that active preparations were in progress at all barracks and naval stations, that large orders for a new and specially efficient kind of transport wagon were placed with the Tokyo Arsenal to be filled in the shortest possible time. These reports were credible and were credited, because only one or two of the least important journals in the capital had previously been guilty of Jingoism or sensationalism, while these reports were published by all; and especially because they were confirmed by reports of mercantile establishments which were selling unusual quantities of personal supplies to army and navy men; and by many evidences visible to observant persons. Meanwhile, cable messages reported large purchases by Japan of flour in the United States and of coal both at Norfolk, Va., and in England, as well as of the two cruisers just completed in Italy to the order of Argentina. It was generally known that the Government had been in negotiation with the large state-subsidized mercantile marine company, Nippon Yusen Kaisha, as to terms for using its ships as transports, and had already intimated to bankers that their assistance might be needed to raise funds. Finally, the Government issued, January 5, an order which prohibits journalistic publication of any news relating to the movements of Japanese troops or warships. At the same time, it was rumored that 20,000 troops had moved out from Kumamoto. The extremely serious aspect of affairs had, on the preceding day (the first business day of the year), been signalized by a sudden drop in values, ranging from 10 to 25 per cent. of the last-quoted market price. Since then there has been a very slight recovery, but values continue, under the gravity of the situation, to sag near the recent extraordinary minimum.

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Under the circumstances, the laying of the facts before the foreign governments is here regarded as about the last pacific move on the part of Japan.

The utmost secrecy has successfully guarded the proposals and counter-proposals of Russo-Japanese negotiations. Even while presenting the facts to foreign governments, the Japanese Government has refused to take its own people into its confidence, but it is well known that the conference between Ministers and Elder Statesmen on December 16 formulated the "irreducible minimum" of Japan's demands, and that this was the basis of the last Japanese communication transmitted to Russia on December 21. Persistent rumors, emanating apparently from Berlin, represent the return by Russia of another temporizing reply, alleging that Russia neither grants nor rejects all of the Japanese demands, but opens new subjects for negotiation. If so, that way war lies, for Japan is in dead earnest, and she is determined no longer to let Russia temporize while using the time to strengthen her position against Japan. The nation is a unit, and the most conservative papers persistently voice its sentiment, viz., that, in view of the Russian mode of procedure and the moderation of Japan's demands, nothing remains to negotiate. Hence the Russian reply must be reducible to a simple "yes" or "no." Berlin is now the only source of optimism. But the Japanese view of Germany's attitude was aptly hit off by a journalistic caricaturist who represents the Kaiser as the god of wind blowing over Europe "optimistic rumors of Russia's pacific purposes—that never materialize."

E. H. Vickers.

## LAGUÉRIE'S KOREA.

Paris, January 26, 1904.

There has sprung up, within twenty years, a new sort of French literature—that of distant journeys and explorations. The most energetic of our young men and young officers have found a field for their activity in all parts of the world. This spontaneous movement is perhaps owing to the prolongation of peace in Europe. The names of Col. Marchand, of Prince Henri d'Orléans, of Bonvalot, of Grandidier, etc., have become very popular, and this new sort of popularity has the advantage of being independent of the narrow spirit of partisanship. Recent events have added much to the interest of one of the books characterized above. In the rich collection of "Illustrated Journeys" published by Hachette, I had already noticed a volume on Korea, the country which is at the present moment attracting so much attention and has become a bone of contention between Russia and Japan.

The title of the volume by M. Villetard de Laguérie is almost prophetic: 'La Corée, indépendante, russe, ou japonaise.' Here we have, so to speak, in a nutshell the question now agitating all Governments, and, it may be said, all nations, civilized or half-civilized. M. Villetard de Laguérie resided in the Far East during the late Sino-Japanese war, as special correspondent of the French paper *Le Temps*. He saw clearly the importance of the part Korea was to play in the final solution of a crisis that involved the fate not only of Japan, but also of China.

Korea is a part of the Asiatic continent, but extends between China's seas and the Sea of Japan very much as Italy lies between the Mediterranean and the Adriatic. It is about nine hundred kilometres in length, and two hundred kilometres wide from sea to sea. Seul, the capital of Korea, may be compared to Rome, which is halfway between the north and the south. Korea, however, is but a truncated Italy; in the north it has no valley of the Po, no rich Lombardy and Venetia, albeit it has a sort of equivalent of the Alps in a high mountain barrier reaching from the Sea of Japan to the Yellow Sea, from the port of Vladivostok to Port Arthur. These Mantchurian Alps are covered with woods and snow, and rise to the height of three thousand metres. Italy has always been a battlefield of nations, and has long been subdivided into kingdoms, duchies, principalities. Two races only have established themselves in Korea, the Mongol or Mantchu race, the continental race, and the Malay or Japanese, the island race. Korea has from time immemorial formed a single kingdom, and been inhabited by a single nation, a single race, formed by the union of two races. The continental element has, however, been predominant; politically and religiously, the Korean people has lived under the discipline of China as a vassal State ever since the end of the fourteenth century. It has been a kingdom of mandarins, though it had its own monarch and its autonomy; it had to pay an annual tribute to China and to render annual homage to the suzerain Emperor of China, with all the forms of an old ceremonial. After the war between Japan and China, this state of things was altered. The first article of the treaty of Shimonoseki reads thus:

"China recognizes definitively the entire independence and autonomy of Korea; and, in consequence, the payment of tribute and performance by Korea with regard to China of ceremonies and formalities in derogation of this independence and this autonomy will cease completely in future."

As for Japan, it was careful not to stipulate at the same time its own renunciation of the rights which it pretended to have over Korea. What these rights are worth, I will not examine; if it has been said that for the most civilized nations might is right, it can all the more be said for nations which are only emerging from barbarism.

Korea has but a small population—probably only ten millions of inhabitants; a number which represents about fifty inhabitants per square kilometre. Japan is looking to Korea as an outlet for her ever-increasing population; she has about forty-five millions of inhabitants, and the rate of increase is very great. It is natural that the Japanese should, on account of its proximity and of the character of its population, consider Korea a suitable land for the creation of colonies. Russia, on her part, is now considering Siberia and the Far East as an outlet for her population, already so large, and which will soon attain formidable numbers. The Siberian Railroad, the occupation of Mantchuria, the acquisition of Vladivostok and of Port Arthur on the Japan and Chinese seas, are visible signs of the movement of Russia's expansion; but there is this difference between the Russian colonies and the Japanese: the first may be called military colonies, the second are really colonies of populations given to all the arts of peace. Time may some day transform the military colonies which Russia is creating in Mantchuria; at the present moment, we can look upon them only as we do on the vanguard of an army. The Japanese colonies in Korea have a different character. The land of Japan proper no longer suffices for its inhabitants, and the population increases every year by 400,000 souls. Since 1597 there have been Japanese colonies in Korea; there are at present from twenty to thirty thousand Japanese established there, with their families. This emigration, concentrated at first in the ports, is spreading over the country; and it would rapidly augment if it were not for the deplorable administration and tyranny of the Korean officials.

The difficulties between Japan and Russia now culminating go back to 1897, and, as is often the case, had their primary origin in a conflict of personal interests. Korea had become the field of many enterprising companies; it was thought that its gold mines, its petroleum, its forests, could be used and become attractions for European capital. In 1897 a Russian company obtained the concession of immense forests in the valleys of the Tumen and the Yalu; it was the time when Russia and Japan had signed a protocol which, so to speak, divided Korea between them. When a second protocol was signed, which delivered Korea completely to Japanese enterprise, it was thought that the Russian concession of 1897 would be practically abandoned; but in 1901 a Russian mission was formed, which appeared in 1902 in the valley of the Yalu, marked the trees in the forest, and prepared for their systematic cutting. This mission established itself in a Korean city where foreigners have no right to reside, built a telegraphic line, and made plans for a railway which should unite the Yalu River to the railway lines of Mantchuria. It obtained in August, 1903, the monopoly of the log rafting on the Yalu, and a piece of land at Yongampo.

The Emperor of Korea had not a word to say to all this, but the minister of Japan naturally claimed similar advantages for his own country, and among others the opening of Wiju, the port of the Yalu. A constant struggle for influence began, and the relations of Japan and Russia became more and more tense. The Japanese asked for the opening of all the ports and the cities still shut against foreigners; for railways, telegraphs, administrative reforms. The Russians, on their side, fortified more and more their position in Mantchuria, and looked with more and more eagerness on the land which separated Vladivostok from Port Arthur.

While I am writing these lines, the question of peace or war between Russia and Japan remains undecided; each day brings contradictory news; great preparations are being made on both sides. Japan seems better prepared for immediate hostilities; the length of the Siberian Railroad to Mantchuria is immense, and troops can be carried only slowly on a single-track line, interrupted by Lake Baikal. If the hostilities began on sea, the Russian fleet, in case of a defeat, would have no suitable port of refuge, and its naval unities could be pursued one by one. There is, fortunately, an element which has to be considered seriously by both sides: the expenses of a war are enormous in our day, and neither the Japanese nor the Russian finances are

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well prepared to be put to a severe test. It is perhaps idle to estimate now the chances of a conflict which, it is to be hoped, will be averted if there is any wisdom left in those who can control the destinies of nations. It is easy to see what calamities might follow a war in the Far East; it is difficult, if not impossible, to see what could be its advantages.

## A SWISS HOLIDAY-HOME.

January, 1904.

The little corner by the railway station at Luzern, where the tram-cars start, was just bubbling over that sunny morning with excited small boys and girls. And they were still swarming in from all directions. Alpine hats with pheasant-feather were cocked with an extra jauntiness, small skirts were swishing, small pig-tails flying straight out behind; all the careful, school-taught high German had vanished on the mountain breezes, and the air was filled instead with the gay chatter of guttural dialect quite unintelligible to my slow ears. What could be the matter? I looked around instinctively for the Pied Piper. Surely only he could be responsible for such a whirl of irrepressible childhood. This must be Hamelin-town instead of hotel-ridden Luzern, and the pell-mell rush of the green Reuss, upon which I had but a moment before been gazing, a mere delusion of my weary brain for the placid sweep of the Weser's waters. But the Pied Piper was not there. Instead of him, the centre of the tumult seemed to be swirling about a calm, paternal figure clad in quiet gray—gray-haired and gray-bearded, too—who smiled gently upon all alike as he stowed them away in the waiting tram-cars headed for Kriens. I knew the good gray man, Father Herzog. He has magic, too, in those kindly eyes, the magic that comes from a heart and a life given to the love and care of children, and especially of those to whom nature has been less kind than to the bright imps who are now swarming around him.

Finally the last clamorous farewells to smiling fathers and mothers and aunts and cousins and less lucky brothers and sisters were with difficulty accomplished, the last parcels (such a miscellaneous menagerie of parcels) were piled in somehow, and the loaded cars gave a final warning clang and rattled away around the corner and up the valley toward Pilatus, while back to our ears came the parting chorus of song in shrill voices lusty with the joy of journeying. Some fifteen minutes of trolley ride, and then two hours of uphill walking, awaited the little wanderers before they could be esconced in their quarters at Eigenthal, to begin the three weeks of happy life in the holiday-home under the bleak shoulder of the great mountain.

Father Herzog, after teaching with loving pains through nine months in the year the feeble-minded children of the commune, gives his whole summer vacation of three months to the care of four successive colonies of these lively guests in Eigenthal. He is assisted by relays of other teachers, usually one man and two women for each colony; and a cook and a housemaid are attached to the service of the house for the entire season. Each colony numbers about fifty boys and as many girls, chosen first of all on application of the parents and recommendation of the teachers, from among the school children of Luzern whom a physician's certificate shows to be, not actually ill, but in especial need of such physical invigoration as can be gained only in the out-of-door life among the hills. The recommendation of the teachers depends upon the studiousness and good conduct of the pupils during the school year, and the reward of the summer outing proves a most powerful incentive to scholarly propriety. No children under ten years of age are received. The Home is especially designed for the help of the poor who are unable to pay anything for their children's outing. For them the three weeks of country life are entirely without charge. Yet those who can contribute something towards the running expenses of the Home are encouraged to do so, be it ever so little. For the last season for which the statistics are as yet available, the total outlay for running expenses for the twelve weeks (the value of gifts of food is not included) was nearly five thousand and three hundred francs, or ninety centimes per day for each child. This was considerably less than the thirty francs for the three weeks which the managing Commission fixes as the standard sum for those who are able and willing to pay a fair amount for their children's board. Out of the three hundred and fifty-seven children cared for in 1902, only seventy-nine paid anything. Of these seventy-nine, only seventeen paid the full amount of thirty francs each; twenty-two others paid various sums, ranging between twenty and thirty francs, thirty-two paid from ten to twenty francs, and eight paid less than ten francs each, the entire sum realized from such contributions being one thousand five hundred and twelve francs. The remainder of the necessary funds for the season's work came for the most part, as in other years, from voluntary contributions, often of small amounts, made by a large number of different associations and persons, and from interest on the gradually accumulating surplus of income over expenditure which careful management and generous contribution have conspired to gather. The City Council appropriated only one thousand francs this year towards the undertaking. The building of the Home itself was also due for the most part to private liberality. The administration of the Home is presided over by a Permanent Commission for Holiday Arrangements of the City of Luzern, composed of representatives of the City Council, of the School Committee, of the school-teachers, of the Association for Municipal Improvements, of the citizens in general, and of the original committee that inaugurated the movement. This Commission solicits contributions through a paid agent, and publishes annually a detailed report and balance-sheet.

"Sind z' Luzärn die Schuele g'schlosse,
I'ackt mer ii und gohd uf d' Alp;
Müedi Meitli, bleiche Bueb
Machid gern bim Hüüsli Halt."

It was quite in the spirit of these verses from the children's song that some days later we started off in their footsteps to find Eigenthal and the Ferienheim. A well laid-out road can be followed all the way, but we preferred the beaten footpath that first wound through sweet-breathing hayfields, by pious wayside shrines, under the swift, downward sweep of the Hochwald, and then mounted westward, through dark fir-woods, the coolness of which was grateful after the fierce beat of the August sun. Pilatus assumed a new aspect as we thus approached and circled his flank. He was no less grand, and his sharply falling cliffs no less inaccessible, than on the other side; but his gray and stern dignity had somehow a less forbidding manner as he looked out with us over the varied green of tumbling hillocks and fertile valleys toward Bern, than to the eastward, where he faces, frowningly and unafraid, the snowclad majesty of the rival heights of Unterwalden.

At the top of the ridge we came upon the highway again, and left behind us the never-failing beauty of the Lake of the Four Forest Cantons. Here the road made a long sweep to the southward, high above the curving valley, and appeared to be marching straight upon Pilatus himself. But just beyond a picturesque group of fir trees, and a tiny white chapel filled with old and doubly atrocious votive paintings of wonderful escapes from peril by the grace of the Blessed Virgin, we heard shrieks of unrestrained childish laughter, and there, right at our feet, perched on a broad, grassy shelf of the sloping hillside, lay the Ferienheim. Children were in evidence everywhere—a group of them just straggling back, flower-laden, from a hill-climbing expedition, other boys engaged in what our small guide called "doing stunts" in the open-air gymnasium, and bevies of girls playing under the big fir tree which they call "die Grossmutter" some of the games that seem to be much the same all over the world.

The house itself was substantially built for its purpose in the plainest of Swiss fashion, with a square central block, and two spreading wings, under which wood could be stored and the children find play room on rainy days. Behind the house stretched a long tank with frequent jets of cold mountain water, where the youngsters, boys and girls alike, made their rosy faces and brown hands clean o' mornings, and doubtless needed to many times during the day. The front door appeared to be that opening into the kitchen, and there Father Herzog welcomed us with his kindly smile and soft slowness of speech. The interior plan was perfectly simple. The capacious kitchen, with two adjacent pantries, or a pantry and a "butt'ry," occupied the lower floor of the central structure. Over this was an ample dining-room, with solid, clean, wooden tables and benches for the hundred children and the teachers, while to right and left of the dining-room, in the wings, were big dormitories, one for boys, the other for girls, each with its fifty little cot-beds, neatly made up by the occupants themselves, standing side by side in long rows. In one corner of the boys' dormitory a little cubbyhole had been boarded off for the house-father's cot and desk. Nothing could have been more Spartanlike in simplicity, and nothing more neat and charmingly comfortable in aspect. The children were just gathering to their four o'clock *Zobig*, and shortly, after a brief grace, a hundred little mouths and two hundred quick hands were busily stowing away great bowlfuls of the richest milk and best bread in the world. Then they sang part-songs, national and local, with the eager enthusiasm that only American college boys

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and Swiss singers seem to feel. And then, at a quiet word from the house-father, they swarmed out for two hours more of tireless play.

Every child on coming into residence is bathed, measured, and weighed. He is again weighed on departure, and (despite the extreme activity of the out-of-door life) the healthful conditions in which he lives and the nourishing food are sure to bring about a substantial increase in weight during the three weeks of residence, the average increase last year being about two and one-half pounds. As one of them, after the official weighing, jubilantly expressed it on an illustrated post-card to his parents,

"Ich bin gesund,
Und kugelrund,
Und 32 Kilo schwer."

He ought to grow globular on four meals a day, with perhaps a morning luncheon thrown in, for milk appears to be unlimited, and although meat is served only two or three times a week, rich soup, with or without vegetables, comes on once, or sometimes twice, a day.

There are no formal lessons, but the teachers accompany the children on their daily walks, and make an especial point of teaching without seeming to teach. Indeed, one of the regulations of the managing Commission reads, "Die Tätigkeit des Hausvaters und der aufsichtführenden Lehrerschaft (Lehrer für die Knaben, Lehrerinnen für die Mädchen) beschränkt sich nicht auf Pflege und leibliches Wohl der Kinder, sondern soll in hervorragendem Masse eine bildend erziehende sein, gemäss den besten und erprobtesten Maximen der Pädagogik." As behooves a pious Swiss community, there is family prayer morning and evening, grace before each meal, and divine service on Sundays, attended by all in the quaint little white chapel with the dreadful pictures, where the children's voices furnish the music.

No longer residence than three weeks for each child can be allowed unless funds are forthcoming for another building. The applications for admission, even with four colonies each summer, are at present nearly double the limits of accommodation. That the institution is abundantly appreciated in Luzern is indicated by the cheerful support it receives; and I, from the practical standpoint of an American, thought I had never seen so little money produce so great an effect in any educational scheme. The influence of only three weeks of such wholesome community training upon the morale of the children is as striking as upon their physique. "That boy," said Father Herzog to me, "came to us not quite three weeks ago, thin, and pale, and bent, and moody, and a bit selfish and quarrelsome. Now he is straight and ruddy and active and cheerful; and yesterday I saw him quietly exchanging his warmer jacket for the thin one in which a younger lad was shivering." And so they all learn lessons of neatness and unselfishness along with their growing health, and these lessons count the most. Best of all, there is not the slightest air of an institution about the place, no red-tape regulations, no schoolmasterish ways; there is as natural and free a manner as there should be in a thoroughly healthy household. Everybody, from the house-father down, seems most simply and perpetually and exuberantly happy. Doubtless the restraining hand has sometimes to be employed—it would be strange if it were not so in a community of a hundred active children from all sorts of families. But there is seldom any discipline needed beyond a quiet word of advice. Doubtless, this ideal state of things is due in chief measure to the admirable personality and wisdom of Herr Herzog himself, but it would seem a pity indeed if all such achievements as his were to be confined to the native land of a Pestalozzi.

We started on our homeward trudge to Luzern through groups of children playing hard to economize the fleeting minutes of their three weeks of happiness, and singing,

"Niene goht's so schön und lustig
Wie bi eus im Eigetal."

I could well believe it. E. T. M.

# Correspondence.

## HERBERT SPENCER'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having been entrusted by the late Mr. Herbert Spencer with the writing of his biography, I shall be greatly obliged to persons who may possess letters from him of interest or value, if they will kindly lend them to me for the purpose of such biography. All letters addressed to Dr. Duncan, care of H. R. Tedder, Esq., Secretary, The Athenæum, Pall Mall, London, S. W., will be carefully preserved and returned in due course to their owners.

Faithfully yours, D. Duncan.

London, January 23, 1904.

## WHO COMES WELL OUT OF IT?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I should like to answer the question with which your reviewer of 'The Nemesis of Froude' ends his article. The answer is, "Thomas Carlyle and Jane Baillie Welsh, his wife." Their case is unique. They had for biographer the worst biographer hitherto discovered. But, after he has done his worst, "the nobility of Carlyle and his wife and the closeness and tenderness of their relations are too clear to be mistaken." This must be the verdict of every one who has patiently reviewed the evidence for himself, and not simply joined in the cries of the marketplace.

Archibald MacMechan.

Dalhousie College, Halifax, N. S., January 30, 1904.

## LIFE IN THE UNIVERSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of January 14 there is a review of Alfred R. Wallace's new book 'Man's Place in the Universe,' in which the author undertakes to show that there are in the universe but few heavenly bodies upon which the necessary conditions for supporting life are fulfilled. This position seems surprising enough, since we are acquainted with such forms of life only as exist here upon the earth and with the conditions necessary for them. What other forms of life may be possible we have no means of knowing. The reviewer therefore very properly points out the non-sequitur.

But there is another point involved in this modern discussion of the plurality of worlds, the neglect of which has often struck me as almost unaccountable. It is the fact that all those discussing the possibility of organic life and intelligent beings upon other planets of our solar system or of any other (so far as I am informed) either tacitly or explicitly have in mind just about such life as we are acquainted with here upon earth. That Mr. Wallace stands upon this same ground is shown by his saying that among the necessary conditions of life are an *atmosphere* formed of a combination of *nitrogen* and *oxygen* in the proper proportion; that *aqueous vapor* must exist in sufficient quantities to produce the right amount of *rain;* that the force of gravity must be about the same as we know it, etc. It does not seem to have occurred to Mr. Wallace that organic life is not necessarily a *carbon-hydrogen-oxygen-nitrogen* life. Verily, it is not carbon alone which will form within certain limits of temperature and pressure an almost endless variety of compounds. We need but turn to carbon's cousin, silicon, and an imposing array of possible compounds suggests itself. It is well known that silicon forms a great number of anhydrous acids by the combination of several molecules of the simple acid and the rejection of the elements of water, and that the natural silicates (found in the minerals) are salts of these poly-acids. Very little is known of the conditions under which the minerals were formed, or the limits of temperature and pressure within which the formation and decomposition of these compounds take place—a *terra incognita.* But the possibility of an almost endless variety of compounds of silicon is well within sight. Now who can say that a *silicon* life may not exist somewhere, instead of a *carbon* life such as we know upon the earth? To deny the possibility upon à priori grounds would be absurd. Among the conditions of such life might be high temperature and high pressure.

Need I say that intelligence is not necessarily confined to brain or nerve substance? The fact that we know no other manifestation of it, is nothing to the question. To insist, upon any à priori grounds or from anything known to man, that upon the sun, for example, there cannot exist intelligent beings, is absurd; and to contend that our vaunted human intelligence is the measure of all intelligence in the world, would be shortsightedness in the extreme, or conceit beyond measure.—Very respectfully,

Werner A. Stille.

Leipzig, Germany, January 28, 1904.

## "ALL-RIGHT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Colloquial expressions may possibly, at times, serve as indications of the temper of a people, and at present in the Middle West everything is "all-right." A perfect epidemic of this term is upon us, and in all quarters our ears are assailed by it.

It is usually pronounced "awright," but it has numerous variants as to stress; the most popular being a prolongation of the first word, and then a sharp sounding of the second—a peculiarly offensive form, borrowed, I believe from some vaudeville

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actor who has, unhappily, touched a sympathetic chord in the crowd.

In spelling, I find a tendency to contract the term into a single word, "alright." It is thus noticeable in the letters of travelling salesmen and country merchants.

In domestic service the use of "all-right" as a response to every query or instruction is peculiarly exasperating and difficult to eradicate. It spreads to the children of one's household, and even the mistress and master find themselves slipping into its use.

The phrase seems to have developed vogue since the "full dinner-pail" came upon us, and reflects, perhaps, the easy, good-natured tolerance born of prosperity—the philosophy of "whatever is, is right."

Yours respectfully,

HENRY LEVERETT CHASE.

ST. LOUIS, January 29, 1904.

# Notes.

Macmillan & Co.'s spring list includes a compendious 'History of the United States,' by Henry W. Elson; 'History of the United States since the Civil War,' by William Garrott Brown, the first of two volumes; 'The Opening of the Mississippi,' by Frederic Austin Ogg; 'Roman Society from Nero to Marcus Aurelius,' by Prof. Samuel Dill; 'The Foundations of Modern Europe,' by Dr. Emil Reich; 'Lectures on the French Revolution and on Modern General History,' by the late Lord Acton, and his 'Letters to Mrs. Drew'; 'Representative Modern Preachers,' by Prof. Lewis O. Brastow; 'The Fat of the Land: The Story of an American Farm,' by John W. Streeter, M.D.; 'Old-Time Schools and Schoolbooks,' by Clifton Johnson, with many illustrations; 'The Making of English,' by Henry Bradley, joint editor of the Oxford English Dictionary; 'Naples,' by Mrs. Augustine FitzGerald, with accompanying plates in color by her husband; 'The History of American Art,' by Prof. John C. Van Dyke; 'Whistler as I Knew Him,' by Mortimer Menpes, with 100 full-page plates in color and tint; 'Anthracite Coal Communities,' by Peter Roberts; 'The Present South,' by Edgar Gardner Murphy; and 'Essays in Heredity,' by Prof. Karl Pearson.

'The Citizen: A Study of the Individual and the Government,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler; and 'Napoleon: A Short Biography,' by R. M. Johnston, are announced for the present month by A. S. Barnes & Co.

The Baker & Taylor Company will soon issue 'Moses Brown, Captain U. S. N.,' by Edgar Stanton Maclay, the first of a series entitled "Unknown Heroes of the Navy"; 'How to Get the Best out of Books,' by Richard Le Gallienne; 'Social Progress,' an almanac of sociological and religious statistics, by Josiah Strong; 'The Better New York: A Sociological Baedeker,' by Dr. Tolman and Charles Hemstreet; 'The Congregationalists,' by the Rev. Leonard W. Bacon; and 'Golf for Women,' by Genevieve Hecker.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready 'In Famine Land,' by the Rev. J. E. Scott, fully illustrated from the author's experience as a missionary in India.

To the Bookman Biographies of James Pott & Co. will be added 'Tennyson,' by G. K. Chesterton and Richard Garnett; 'Browning,' by James Douglas; and 'Thackeray,' by Mrs. Chesterton and Lewis Melville.

Ruskin's Letters to Charles Eliot Norton, filling two volumes, will be issued in the autumn by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., who will shortly have ready 'Louisiana Purchase Papers,' consisting of two as yet inedited, one by Jefferson on the boundaries of the Territory, and the journal of William Dunbar's journey up the Red and Washita Rivers; 'The Neighbor: The Natural History of Human Contacts,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler; and 'William Greenleaf Eliot,' a biography by Charlotte C. Eliot.

A 'Source-book of Roman History,' by Dr. D. C. Munro, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Ginn & Co. announce 'Sea Stories for Wonder Eyes,' a book for children, by Mrs. A. S. Hardy, and 'Machiavelli and the Modern State,' three lectures delivered by Louis Dyer at the Royal Institution, London, in April, 1899.

A Life of Dr. William Pepper, by Prof. Francis Newton Thorpe, and 'The Educational Theory of Immanuel Kant,' by Prof. Edward Franklin Buchner of the University of Alabama will shortly appear with the imprint of J. B. Lippincott Co.

The Delegates of the Clarendon Press, Oxford, are preparing a thorough revision of Liddell & Scott's Greek-English Lexicon, under the editorship of Arthur Sidgwick. Corrections or additions are invited from scholars, who may communicate with the secretary of the Delegates. Fairly in sight is the third and concluding volume of C. Raymond Beazley's 'Dawn of Modern Geography'; but Dr. M. Aurel Stein's complete account of the results of his researches in Chinese Turkistan cannot appear before next year. The completion of Prof. Joseph Wright's 'English Dialect Dictionary' is also set down for 1905.

Archibald Constable & Co., London, have in press 'The History of the King's Bodyguard of the Yeomen of the Guard,' by Col. Sir Reginald Hennell, D.S.O., their lieutenant, whose narrative goes back to the creation of the Guard in the fifteenth century. The illustrations will be numerous, many in color, and mostly new.

The series of twentieth-century reprints of nineteenth-century books already noticed as bearing the American imprint of Messrs. Appleton, with their mostly colored plates, goes on with the third part of 'Dr. Syntax's Tour in Search of a Wife' (designs by Rowlandson); Pierce Egan's 'Life in London' (illustrated by the Cruikshanks); 'Handy Andy,' with Lover's own drawings; and 'The National Sports of Great Britain,' with Henry Alken's color scenes, for which he furnishes the text, that is typographically most open and readable of all except Syntax's jingles.

In substance the 'Donatello,' by Alfred Gotthold Meyer, in the Knackfuss "Monographs on Artists," published by Velhagen & Klasing of Leipsic and Bielefeld (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), is excellent, and the illustrations are, as usual in this series, numerous and good, though sometimes on an unfortunately small scale. The translation, on the other hand, is quite incompetent, being not only clumsy and unidiomatic, but disfigured by such blunders as *have* for *half*, *regaled* for *relegated*, and *course* for *coarse*—the latter repeated with a consistency that probably exonerates the compositor from blame. Besides these, there is in one place a confusion of the titles under the illustrations, while a misprint, on page 111, places Donatello's death twenty years too early. The system, or lack of system, of the punctuation is entirely incomprehensible to us, and the way in which commas intrude into the middle of phrases is bewildering. It is a pity that the publishers of this meritorious series cannot find translators, or at least a proofreader, with a reasonable knowledge of English.

'Literary New York,' by Charles Hemstreet (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is a book of "landmarks and associations." It has sixty-five illustrations, and is fuller than most single volumes of its class, as it comes down to date, and gives us the landmarks and associations of the present metropolis. There is not much glamour or romance about these, but they relate to living men more or less well known, and hence possess interest. New York is now known as a "literary headquarters," but it has never been really literary in tone, except so far as Irving and his immediate successors for a time created a literature. We do think of Irving, Paulding, Drake, Halleck as essentially men of New York, while of Cooper, Poe, and Bryant we think rather as Americans; and, at the present time, Mr. Howells belongs to no city or State. New York has gained many things since the "Knickerbocker" days, but it has also lost at least one—that sort of literary solidarity which makes literature seem a genuine growth of the soil, and for which a commercial "world capital" is perhaps ill adapted. And we cannot but think that the sodden government of Tammany Hall makes against good literature. A community which prefers to be governed by liquor sellers in the interest of panders and blackmailers can hardly be said to deserve a literature. It produces after its kind a yellow press, which answers its foul purposes. The blight of Tammany Hall, as any one can see who looks over a book like this, is far worse than it used to be, because its power is far greater. Literature flourishes under the kindly influence of an enlightened government, and the motto of those who love letters here, as of those who love justice and humanity, should be, Tammany *est delenda*.

'The Greeks' Companion,' published by Socrates A. Xanthake, editor of the *Atlantis*, is a guide for Greeks in the United States and Canada, which contains statistics of the States, abstracts of commercial regulations, laws pertaining to immigration, naturalization, marriage, etc.—in brief, all needful information for an intelligent Greek who proposes to settle in this country and become a citizen. The significant feature of this publication is that it is designed for Greeks just entering the country—that is, for an intelligent people who read, transact business, and are capable of understanding laws and contracts. The Greeks at home are among the most literate peoples of Europe; they enjoy a constitutional government, they are as democratic as the Swiss or the French, they are keenly interested in politics—they enjoy the game, perhaps, too keenly. At any rate, they are no strangers to self-government. That they are, in the main, law-abiding was proved during the cotton strike last year in Lowell. Several thousand of

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the strikers were Greeks—many of them newcomers; and their presence was at first thought to be as ticklish and incalculable as the vicinity of a powder magazine. Yet there was hardly a symptom of violence, and the issue was a creditable contrast to the ordinary programme of murder and persecution in the mining districts. It is a comforting reflection that this particular stream of immigrants is, as a rule, so well fitted for assimilation with the citizens of a republican government.

Four books on electricity are before us. The first of these, which is intended for the general reader, is incomplete, although already filling three volumes, being the first part and the first division (or a portion of it) of the second part of R. Mullineux Walmsley's 'Modern Practical Electricity.' It is an English book, referring to instruments used in England, and is printed there, though issued by W. T. Keener & Co. of Chicago. It carries no date; nor is there any intimation that it is a second edition of a ten-year-old book. Nor is there any statement as to the number of volumes still to come. On a hasty examination, one might suppose it to be complete. It really has a good deal of merit as being such an account as any intelligent person can understand of those effects of electricity which may come into the experience of non-electricians. We cannot recommend it until we know when it is to be completed. The 'Elementary Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism,' of G. Carey Foster and Alfred W. Porter, is also a second edition; but as it is published by Longmans, Green & Co., we may be sure there is no occasion to cry *Caveat emptor*. It has been extensively revised, yet is hardly so good as an entirely new book might have been. It is a text-book that avoids the calculus.

'Elements of Electromagnetic Theory,' by S. J. Barnett (Macmillan), is a profound and meritorious mathematical work. The author has "tried to present in systematic and definite form a simple, rigorous, and thoroughly modern introduction to the fundamental principles of the subject." He does not seem to us to have succeeded in making the subject quite as perspicuous as he might have made it, nor everywhere to be clearly rigorous; yet he has produced a valuable work. Mr. G. D. Aspinall Parr's 'Electrical Engineering Measuring Instruments' (Van Nostrand Co.) is a good technical book concerning instruments generally in use in England.

An elaborate quarto volume on the 'Climatology of California,' by A. G. McAdie (Weather Bureau Bulletin L, 1903), contains a large amount of useful statistical information; yet an examination of it must convince the reader that the art of treating the climate of a State otherwise than in tabular form is not well developed. Facts of interest and importance are presented in abundance, and many carefully prepared tables of temperature and rainfall are given for various stations; but the descriptive treatment of the problems involved leaves much to be desired. There does not appear to have been in the editor's mind a well-considered scheme in accordance with which the summarized facts should be verbally set forth. Charts of annual rainfall and mean annual temperature, with a table of monthly precipitation for a term of years (no locality given), come under a text-heading, "Pressure Distribution," for no apparent reason. "Topography," a subject of great importance in such work, is treated briefly and unsatisfactorily; and the hot "northers" of the great valley are mentioned here instead of in a subdivision of the section "Winds," which have no separate consideration. The view from Mt. Tamalpais, a Weather Bureau station, must be marvellous, for from it "one looks down on the broad expanse of the Pacific, nearly 20,000,000 square miles of water, to the north, west, and south." Fine plates of fog and clouds, and a discussion of frost, are given in the later pages. The table of contents is placed at the end of the book, and called "Index."

The "colored one-inch map" (one inch to a mile) of England now in course of publication by the Ordnance Survey (London: Stanford) is a vast improvement on the sheets of the earlier series, and is one of the best examples of modern topographic methods. The sheets are of various sizes and shapes, for reasons not easily apparent; their cost is not more than two or three shillings for the largest. They are excellent guides for local excursions, and add greatly to the pleasure of travel. Villages and roads are given in great detail, and the form of the ground is indicated with unusual success. Slopes are shown by well-drawn brown hachures; height by red contours for every hundred feet. The chief highways are in ochre, the water in blue, the parks in green, and the "culture" in black.

Among the maps issued during 1903, the Manchester sheet is remarkable for its density of population, characteristic of modern industrial England since the use of coal and steam withdrew the centre of population from the old agricultural counties. The Lincoln sheet, and the ones north and south of it, exhibit with much delicacy the escarpment of the oolite (limestone); and here one may trace "Ermine Street," of the ancient Roman ways, still generally followed, but sometimes locally abandoned for no apparent reason by the modern road: it has been suggested that this is because the Roman ways became more or less overgrown during the Dark Ages of their least use; and that later, when traffic increased again, the old ways were here and there lost in thickets, around which the newer road wandered. The Snowdon sheet and its neighbors include some notable examples of skeleton mountains, whose body has been gnawed out, in large part by glacial erosion, so as to leave only a narrow and branching backbone, or arête: the round-headed cirques from which the glaciated valleys descend are fine examples of their kind. Mountains of this form present interesting contrasts on the one hand with the full-bodied masses of the Adirondacks, whose ample contours are but little indented by ravines; and on the other hand with certain skeleton mountains of North Carolina, whose delicately ramifying dissection is the work, not of clumsy, thick-headed ice-streams, but of slender and agile water-streams.

Two series of maps of Germany are in course of publication: the "Karte des Deutschen Reiches" (1:100,000), and the "Topographische Uebersichts-Karte des Deutschen Reiches" (1:200,000). The former indicates relief by means of black hachures, with numbers here and there showing altitudes in metres. The latter indicates relief by brown contours for every 10 or 20 metres, and is therefore much to be preferred for general use. In such a district as the Schwarzwald the hachured map is too dark, and the names, also in black, are too indistinct for easy consultation. On both maps, water is in blue, and boundaries are tinted in various colors.

A remarkably fine and clearly lettered wall-map of North America comes to us from Carl Flemming in Glogau (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). It is clearly made up from four sheets of the ninth edition of the Sohr-Berghaus Handatlas, and embraces not only the entire continent, with Greenland, Iceland and the Aleutian Islands, Cuba, Hayti, Jamaica and Porto Rico, but also (in side maps) our imperial possessions and sphere of influence in the Pacific (but the Philippines are only minutely in evidence). Points of hostile contact like Colombia and Venezuela are just included on the lower margin, and there is a separate map for the Isthmus of Panama. The water space is thriftily filled with small maps of North America to exhibit meteorology, vegetation, orography, crops, fisheries, etc.

—While scientists such as the president of a noted Western university are fulminating almost continuously against set college courses, and holding up to criticism, if not ridicule, almost everything in the history of college education more than twenty years old, it is at least a welcome break in a situation fast growing monotonous to find an avowed devotee of science, Prof. John J. Stevenson, taking directly opposite ground. In the *Popular Science Monthly* for January he assails with great vigor the present tendencies in college education, and maintains that the real need of the colleges is to get back to the standards in vogue several decades ago. He takes it as almost self-evident that the average student entering college cannot select for himself from the studies offered as wisely as men of age and experience in educational matters can select for him; and, even aside from all that, he regards the discipline of following a set course as an experience which the boy sorely needs, in preparation for the work of after life. The course should not be shortened, nor should colleges resort to the prevalent device of using the senior year to anticipate studies belonging properly to the professional school; thus allowing one year's work to be applied toward both the baccalaureate and the professional degree. Without any such clipping, he thinks, the lawyer or doctor can get before his public fully as early in life as they should be willing to entrust their cases to his hands. Scientists have been primarily responsible for the current bent towards early specialization, and it is a rare thing, at present, to find one on the opposite side of the question. A reaction is due, however, and it will not be surprising if Professor Stevenson finds a goodly number of scientists to stand with him in the idea that it is the proper function of our colleges and universities to make a man first and then a specialist.

—'Quebec under Two Flags' (The Quebec News Company) is the joint production of Dr. A. G. Doughty and Dr. N. E. Dionne, the librarians of the Quebec Legislature. Both writers know their sub-

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ject at first-hand, and have published excellent books on Canadian history—Dr. Doughty in his 'Siege of Quebec' and Dr. Dionne in his biographies of Jacques-Cartier and Champlain. The aim of the present volume is highly practical. It is neither to retell a story so often told before, nor to submerge the reader beneath a flood of antiquarian details, but to present in convenient form those facts which throw most light upon the ancient prestige of the town and its modern attractions. The vicissitudes of Quebec furnish a fine theme alike to the historian and to the man of letters. Unfortunately, the subject often suggests a kind of rhetoric which has no historical value, and is too flamboyant to deserve the name of good literature. This book has the merit of being concrete and categorical. It keeps to the region of fact, and leaves the rhapsodical style to those who are less sure of their ground. We call attention particularly to the notices of public buildings, and to the copious supply of that local information which tourists need much more than the conventional outbursts regarding scenery and romance. Certain chapters, like those on the fortifications and the legend of the *Chien d'or*, are particularly interesting from their thorough grasp of the original materials. Other notable features of the volume are the clearness of its style and the beauty of its illustrations. The only mechanical blemish is an undue tightness of binding. We shall sum up by saying that this is much the best handbook on Quebec that exists.

—The 'Color Key to North American Birds,' by Frank M. Chapman and Chester A. Reed (Doubleday, Page & Co.), appears to be largely the work of Mr. Reed, who is favorably known to the public through his bird magazine, *American Ornithology*. The aim of the 'Key' is to enable the amateur student to identify birds without having specimens in hand. Almost every species included is illustrated by a colored drawing. The author has cleverly hit on the plan of making the representations diagrammatic rather than lifelike, and of reproducing only the characteristic coloration that appears when the bird is seen at a distance. Although not so successful with the dull-colored, he brings out with excellent effect the diagnostic specific differences of the brilliant birds, notably in the case of the warblers. An unusual feature of the book is its wide scope. Other authors have produced field keys, but none have heretofore included all the species and sub-species from Panama to the Pole. One may question, however, whether the book might not be of greater use to the ordinary student if it covered a more restricted area with a less confusing list of species and sub-species. Moreover, it must be remembered that although any picture, but especially a colored picture, is a greater help to identification than the best description, still, an extensive and accurate knowledge of species is practically unattainable without the aid either of specimens in hand, or of a teacher who has studied from such material.

—A good part of Mr. Emerson Hough's pleasing book, 'The Way to the West' (*Indianapolis*: Bobbs-Merrill Co.), has already appeared in a series of magazine articles entitled "The Settlement of the West, a Study in Transportation." The sub-title of this series very fairly describes the present volume. There is not much chronology, not much politics, but a succession of cleverly drawn pictures of the pioneers pressing across the mountains, down the Ohio, up the Missouri, to the Pacific, and, it is suggested, across the Pacific, in constant obedience to the same spirit of enterprise and unrest. Few Americans will read this book without being enlightened as to the history and character of their countrymen and stirred with admiration for them. "It has not been the intention herein," says Mr. Hough, "to write a history of the American people, but a history of the American Man." There are characteristic chapters on "The American Axe," "The American Rifle," "The American Boat," "Boone," "Crockett," "The Santa Fé Trail," "Early Explorers of the Trans-Missouri." The two points which, at the cost of much iteration, Mr. Hough is determined to impress upon the reader are, first, that "in the year 1834 it became no longer profitable to trap the beaver"—hence the trappers had to do something, and accordingly settled California; and, second, that Frémont was not "the Pathfinder," but merely allowed Kit Carson to guide him around a country "which to many a Western man was as familiar as his own dooryard."

—Mr. Hough has a taste for archaisms, such as "shoon" and "weaponry," and a neat hand at epigram, which, like many beneficiaries of that fatal gift, he occasionally employs at the risk of strict accuracy. Yet few and slight are the blemishes of this excellent book. He gives us food for thought in such sentences as these: "The Old World was called upon to furnish us a people to replace the more than half-million dead of as grand a population as the world ever knew, the flower of America, North, South, East, and West. It would have been this splendid army of men that would have settled the West had it not been for the war, which a few years later would have been an impossible thing." "Canada lost one-fifth of her population to the United States. She is regaining much of it to-day, because she still has a West and we have none." "No man of all the future will ever again behold a land like that American West which is now no more. That was indeed a land rich in the bounty of nature, rich in opportunity for humanity. It was a land where a man could indeed be a man; where indeed he might live honestly and cleanly and nobly, unshrinking from his fate in fearing for his own survival, helpful to his neighbor, independent as to himself."

—The well-known author of the standard 'Life of Drake,' Mr. Julian Corbett of Trinity College, Cambridge, has been discoursing at Oxford, in his capacity of this year's Ford lecturer, on the naval policy of Cromwell, which he presents partly as a continuation of that inaugurated in Elizabethan days, and continued under James I. and Charles I., but chiefly as to its extension to the Mediterranean. His study of the motives underlying the dispatch of Admiral Blake to the Mediterranean, of its effects upon the French expedition under the Duc de Guise, sent by Mazarin to seize Naples, of Blake's occupation of the Straits of Gibraltar, his stay at Leghorn and Cagliari, as well as of his memorable bombardment of Tunis, is an absolutely new contribution to the history of naval tactics. The fact that Blake first had the news—false as it proved in the end—that led to his enterprise against Tunis, just after he had narrowly escaped losing his fleet in a storm, was vividly presented at the third Ford lecture. At the same time, it was made plain that the supposed original instructions of Blake to operate against Tunis are quite apocryphal. What Blake's instructions were could, Mr. Corbett maintained, be gathered only from Blake's movements. These show them to have been most vague. Probably they had reference to the French plans against Naples, which appear to have been completely upset by the various moves of the English squadron. The lecturer also examined the common assertion that Blake received from Cromwell a "pardon." This, he contends, was conveyed to him in Cromwell's letter approving after the fact of the bombardment of Tunis, by undertaking which Blake unquestionably risked the safety of the whole English Levantine trade. That would have been wiped out by a declaration of war on the part of the Grand Turk.

—It will not be the fault of the "Young Turks" if they are not set straight with the Western world. For long that world had a comfortable feeling that in Turkey there were Turks and Christians, each much disapproving of the other; that Christianity and reform of necessity and exclusively went together, and that if perchance any Turk were a reformer, he would be found friendly in attitude towards Christians, native and foreign. But it is now plain that there is a powerful Turkish reform party—mostly, it is true, residing abroad, and of unproved sincerity in its reforming protestations—which does not love Christians any more than do the Turks of the old school, perhaps even less. Christians to them are to be feared and hated; to their fathers they were simply to be despised and used. So we are met with the paradox, for us, of a party professing the most correct modern principles and nourishing the strongest racial and religious prejudices, talking largely of liberty and equality, and defending the Armenian massacres of 1895-6. Yet there is one point on which all reformers and revolutionaries, Muslim and Christian, are united—hatred of the present Sultan and his system. As the Padishah of the Ottomans, every Turk, old-fashioned or "young," would live or die for him; as head of an autocratic reign of terror, he has outlawed himself for many, and might legally be deposed by a fetwa given by the Shaykh al-Islam, as were both his immediate predecessors. But the old Turkish system, with its loyalties, prejudices, and weaknesses, is still essentially the ideal of every Turk; they hold by their blood and by the Ottoman line.

—All this stands out very clearly in 'The Life of Midhat Pasha,' by his son, Ali Haydar Midhat (London: John Murray). Midhat Pasha was one of the most distinguished leaders in the little group which attempted in the seventies to bring about constitutional reform in Turkey. His record from the beginning of his official career was that of an able and honest administrator. He had a large part in the deposition of Abd al-Aziz, and, not unnaturally, was suspected

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of a part in his death. Through him the ill-fated Murad was enthroned and, thereafter, the present Sultan, in conflict with whom the latter part of his life was to be passed. The story of that conflict is very fully and fairly given here, with large quotations from Midhat Pasha's correspondence. The issue of it—the triumph of Abd al-Hamid over constitutionalism—conditions essentially the present situation, and explains how the Sultan has been able to gather into his own hands all the reins of power. Then follows the trial of Midhat for the alleged murder of Abd al-Aziz, the condemnation, the English intervention, and the commutation of sentence to exile in Arabia, and finally his murder there, as certainly as any state murder can be proved, at the order of the Sultan. Other elements in the perplexed life of the time are brought out with a new clearness—the making away with the constitution, Russian intrigues and influence on the present Sultan, and the immediate causes of the war of 1877-78. Ali Haydar Midhat has done the duty of a son towards his father's memory, and has produced a book which, while it is certainly a "Young Turk" manifesto and a denunciation of Abd al-Hamid, is also a real contribution on many obscure passages of recent history. Yet it is curious to find an educated Muslim quoting traditions (p. 14) as found in the Qur'an. Do young Turks, when they learn to allude to "something rotten in the state of Denmark," give up the study of their own sacred books?

## SVEN HEDIN'S EXPLORATIONS IN CENTRAL ASIA.

*Central Asia and Tibet:* Towards the Sacred City of Lassa. By Sven Hedin. In two volumes. London: Hurst & Blackett; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The name and fame of Dr. Sven Hedin have already become well known to geographers by the explorations he had made in previous years, and described in one earlier book of travel, entitled 'Through Asia.' The present volumes contain the record of journeys undertaken in 1899, 1900, and 1901, in which about 6,000 miles of Inner Asia were covered. The regions traversed were, broadly speaking, the northern part of eastern or Chinese Turkistan, or Mongolia, and the eastern, southern, and southwestern parts of Tibet—regions which, sixty years ago, had remained almost unvisited from the days of Marco Polo downwards, and much of which, even since the journeys of Przhevalsky, Littledale, and the Pandits whom the Government of British India has from time to time sent out across the Himalaya, had continued to be practically unknown. Nearly all of these regions are desert, nearly all their surface lies more than 10,000 feet above sea level; thus they are dry and cold, even in summer, and intensely cold in winter. Human obstacles are not so serious as those which the climate presents to the explorer, for though there are robbers here and there, they seem to have given Dr. Hedin no trouble. But the traditional and unconquerable suspicion of the Lamaist Government of Tibet did interpose great difficulties, and in fact prevented our traveller from reaching one of the principal goals of his journey, the sacred city of Lhasa. No European has been permitted to enter it since the Abbé Huc did so in 1845.

Our author is a first-rate traveller, full of energy, spirit, and resource, and evidently of remarkable physical strength and soundness of constitution. Nothing but a splendid constitution could have survived the hardships which he describes, and which he does not seem in any way to exaggerate. He must also possess in high measure two invaluable gifts. The one is that of finding the way where there are not only no roads, but no tracks, and where the landscape is apt to be darkened by sand storms or snow storms. Only those who have tried to travel in a desert by map and compass solely can realize how great the difficulties are; and how great the risk, when a party is obliged to divide, that its two sections may not meet again. The other gift is that of getting, keeping, and managing good servants. Dr. Hedin travelled with a caravan which was sometimes of twenty men or more, and seldom of less than seven. His men were partly Cossacks in the Russian service, partly persons hired at various places which he passed. There were Musulmans and Buddhists among them, and now and then a Christian. There were Turkmans, Buriats, Mongols, Tibetans, Afghans. That he seems to have found little difficulty in keeping up discipline and getting excellent work out of this motley company speaks well for his firmness, his good temper, and, above all, his skill in selection. The reader becomes quite interested in some of the leading figures in this little party, although the author makes no attempt to embellish his tale. Dr. Hedin likes the Musulmans least. After recounting the peculations and disgrace of one who had for a time discharged his trust with fidelity, he adds:

"The moral of the whole story is—Never trust a Musulman. You would think that after a man had served you faithfully for so many years, and been the recipient of so many favors, you could trust him with untold gold. But not so the Mohammedans; they never forget that they are serving an unbeliever. From the moral point of view, these Central Asiatics stand on a low level; but they must not be judged too severely: their conditions of life are exceptionally hard. The Mongols stand incomparably higher than they do, and when you have the good fortune to be accompanied by an escort of Cossacks, you need only employ Mohammedans for the more laborious tasks." (Vol. II., p. 202.)

Our author's favorites are two Buddhists, a Buriat Cossack from near Lake Baikal, and a Lama from Urga, in Mongolia, who was engaged to accompany him through Tibet. This worthy man, incurring the displeasure of the heads of his religion because he had guided a European who was trying to slip into the Sacred City, ultimately, when the journey was over, settled himself in a Kalmuk Buddhist monastery at Astrakhan. Wide is the world which Buddhism covers!

Regarded as a piece of literature, these volumes are steady-going and businesslike rather than brilliant. There is little attempt at picturesque description, little effort to convey any general impression of the scenes or of the people. The book is, in fact, practically a transcription of the author's diary, in which the incidents of travel are recorded from day to day. One looks in vain for a broad view of the orography and physical structure of Inner Asia. From the occasional mention of the heights of passes we can gather which are the most elevated parts of the great plateau; from the records of temperature (which sometimes went down to —26 degrees Fahrenheit), and of the direction of the winds, one similarly gathers the salient features of the climate; but this is all. The omission is explained by the statement that the scientific results of the expedition are reserved for later volumes. When these are published, it is to be hoped that they will contain not merely a body of detailed statements dealing with mountain heights, lake depths (a matter which was the subject of careful investigation), temperatures, direction and force of winds, rainfall, level of perpetual snow, size of glaciers, etc., but also a general view of the physical character of Mongolia and Tibet, such as may enable that character to be duly apprehended by the reader who has not time to plod through and work out for himself the significance of a mass of details.

Though we regret the absence of such a general picture from these two volumes, because it is probable that the volumes which are to follow will reach only a more limited circle of readers, we do not wish to imply that the daily record of travel here given lacks interest. It is clear, simple, graphic, not deficient in human interest. It sets before us a striking example of tenacity, courage, and skill in the arts of travel. Monotonous in some respects it is, as the author himself admits, and must needs be, considering the extraordinary monotony of most of the country traversed. Wide plains of barren clay or sand, shallow lakes fed by rivers often almost dry in summer; a scanty vegetation which, where it exists, is practically confined to poplars along the watercourses and tamarisks rooted wide in the sand, with a tapering crown of twisted boughs; huge mountains, seldom, it would appear, of bold or noble form, but sometimes austerely grand in their rocky gorges; exquisite colors in the distant views when the weather suffers the distant hills to be visible; but more frequently cruel storms darkening the sky; frightful cold on the heights alternating with oppressive heat, breeding swarms of mosquitoes and gadflies, in the moist depressions—these are the features of Turkistan and Tibet repeated over thousands of miles. A dismal region, but a region apparently more inhospitable now than it once was, for there seems to be in progress a steady process of desiccation which has either narrowed or obliterated most of the lakes, reduced the flow of the streams, and condemned to desolation districts formerly inhabited.

One of the results of Dr. Hedin's journeys which the geographer, and indeed the historian too, will find most interesting is his account of the great lake Lop Nor (which the older maps called Lob Nor), lying north of the main line of the Kuen Lun Mountains, near the extreme southwest corner of the desert of Gobi. He seems to have established that this lake changes its position from time to time, following changes in the course of the principal river which enters it and keeps it in existence. The consequence is that districts where there was formerly a possibility of cultivation or pasture have now become uninhabitable. At one place he saw a new lake in process of formation. A stream had altered its course, and, when it reached a depression, was overflowing the low ground and creating a great sheet of water, where had apparently been none before. The number of these

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isolated lake basins in Inner Asia is apparently larger than the older geographers had known. Many are described here, some quite small. Many more have evidently vanished in the process of desiccation—a process, by the way, which is going on in inner North America also. Great Salt Lake, for instance, was at no distant date much more extensive than it is now.

A little north of the old Lop Nor, Dr Hedin made a discovery of some historical importance. He came upon the ruins of a considerable town at a place called Lôu Lan. The extreme dryness of the air had preserved fragments of houses, some bearing wood carvings, as well as domestic utensils, ornaments, and weapons, together with some coins and some wooden tablets and pieces of paper covered with writing. Dr. Hedin, himself disclaiming archæological knowledge, gives reports on these relics from two competent scholars. The writing establishes the fact that the place was the Lôu Lan mentioned in Chinese records, and that there existed a town of some importance here between A. D. 200 and A. D. 300, a town in constant communication with northern China by routes across the Desert. It would seem "to have been destroyed by an inundation or a desert storm, or by both"; and the survivors apparently built another town in the same region, which in its turn perished in the fourteenth century. According to Chinese chronicles, this Lôu Lan was in still earlier times the seat of a principality, which, having been semi-independent, became subject to China shortly before the Christian era. This discovery, together with that of an ancient city (examined by Dr. A. M. Stein), near Khotan, a good way to the southwest of Lôu Lan, throws a certain amount of new light upon the very obscure history of Mongolia. At present there seem to be scarcely any inhabitants all through the vast stretch of country from the neighborhood of Lhasa on the south to the Thian Shan Mountains on the north; and indeed little animal life, save that, in places where water can be had, there occur some wild camels, wild asses, wild yaks, and two or three species of antelopes, as well as wolves and an occasional bear.

Dr. Hedin was only a few days' march from Lhasa when the Tibetan authorities stopped him. He was not illtreated by them—indeed, they behaved with a courtesy which may perhaps have been due to the reports that had reached Lhasa of the vengeance taken in China for the murder at Pekin of a German envoy. Thus foiled, as indeed he half-expected to be, he turned to the west, and marched steadily, escorted part of the way by the Tibetans, through a little known part of southwestern Tibet, keeping a good way to the north of the Himalaya, till he turned sharp to the south, and crossed the range Ladakh, whence he descended into India. As respects scenery, this seems to have been the most interesting part of the whole journey. The book is embellished with a profusion of woodcuts, as well as with several maps. Of the translation it is sufficient to say that it does not read like a translation, but has the freshness and ease of a book composed in English. It is satisfactory to know that so skilful an explorer, being still a comparatively young man, contemplates a further expedition to the region for our knowledge of which he has done so much.

## FAHIE'S GALILEO.

*Galileo:* His Life and Works. By J. J. Fahie. With portraits and illustrations. James Pott & Co. 8vo, pp. 451.

To one whose chief enjoyment of books is in reading them, who hates an *édition de luxe*, or any beauty of type or paper that may adorn a parlor table but incommodes a reader, and for whom, in the case of illustrations in which the artistic element is not the predominant consideration, nothing every way more satisfactory has been invented than good process reproductions of photographs, the dress of this volume will seem worthy of its subject, with its tasteful cover, light weight, paper really better than most of the old linen paper, legible type, graceful and free from every kind of affectation, and with black ink. It is from the Edinburgh Press. In those respects in which Mr. Fahie's 'History of Wireless Telegraphy' made us fear this book might be weak, it turns out to be particularly strong; while in some of those respects in which our expectations ran high, we find ourselves a little disappointed. We are not disappointed, however, in finding very scrupulous care and intelligence in getting the events of Galileo's life accurately recorded in every detail. It is safe to say that the history of the persecution here at last takes substantially its definitive shape. For the first time we feel confident of really understanding that history.

The author acknowledges great aid from Professor Favaro, whose stupendous labors in Galile-ology are so famous; and it would seem, from the notes, that Favaro may perhaps have read and minutely annotated Mr. Fahie's MS. There is certainly no one volume of Favaro's own that gives the unitary conception of Galileo's life that this does. It is necessarily more or less a compilation from Favaro; but there are places where the author successfully maintains somewhat different views. It is on the account of the persecution that he has chiefly laid out his resources, and shows really high literary qualities. He is eminently sane, not flying into a passion with the dead, but painting the crime calmly in its true colors, unglozed by any superficial excuses. He looks upon Galileo, not as if his duty consisted in making him a fine subject for a melodrama, but as what might be called, in theatrical parlance, a "practicable" man, like a door or window that will really open and shut. These are what we call the qualities of literary skill in the book. The reviewer took it up late in the evening, and laid it down at half-past six in the morning.

Unfortunately, so much pains has been expended by the author on this great event and on getting all the little facts of the biography right, that not quite so much energy seems to have been left for accuracy in other directions. One cannot say it is a heinous offence to call Simplicius (the Greek commentator, we mean, not Galileo's personage) a Sicilian; but still it puts a bad mark against the account of accuracy. In a sketch of the history of the Magnet down to and including Gilbert, no mention is made of Petrus Peregrinus, from whom Gilbert stole his best experiments. These are the merest trifles; yet even smaller faults are not altogether without importance when they relate to the subjects of Galileo's discoveries. In noticing the Italian's invention of the telescope, late in August, 1609, near eleven months after Lipperley in Holland received a patent for a similar invention, it might have been worth mention that on February 14, 1610, a letter, of which the original happens to be extant, was written to remind Thomas Harriotts of a former promise to send one of the "perspective cylinders" he was then making to an acquaintance. Galileo's *bilancetta*, which was simply an account of a balance for weighing an object under water, in order to find its specific gravity, was published in 1644. It is here said (no doubt with good reason) that it was invented in 1586, but it would have been well to explain just how that date has been ascertained, and to state that in that very year Simon Steven published the very same invention in Leyden. Galileo was in all probability right in surmising that the method had been known to Archimedes. We are told that Galileo discovered the principle of virtual velocities. No doubt; just as there were three kings of Chickeraboo. But a good half of the virtue of that principle consists, not in perceiving it in a few simple cases, but in generalizing it into the universal key to dynamics. To say that Galileo knew the parallelogram of forces is not in perfect strictness true; but if that is to be said, it becomes downright misleading to say that "he failed to grasp the fact that that acceleration which in the case of motion under gravity he so closely examined, might be made a means of measuring the magnitude of the force producing the motion." Galileo had perfectly clear conceptions of velocity and acceleration, and of their parallelograms. He had, for example, a perfectly clear conception of what is called "*g*," and never would have been guilty of trying to express it in pounds' weight. He had a tolerable notion of pressure, and, of course, some idea of a force applied to a part of the surface of a solid, etc. But he seems to have had no idea at all of a moving or effective force. He never spoke of gravity as a force; and if he had ever heard anybody so speak, he would probably, at first, have accused him of talking metaphysics. Consequently, his notion of the parallelogram of forces must have been obscure. The truth is, that Mr. Fahie, though he makes a praiseworthy effort to do so, never properly appreciates Galileo's wonderful command of dynamical conceptions, wherein lay his chief greatness, and which formed the warp of his intellectual life. The inevitable consequence is that his portraiture is, with all its merits, hardly more than mediocre. It is true that he quotes what Lagrange says (calling him an Italian, as he might so call Napoleon); but if he had fully understood what it amounted to, he would have erased the ninth and tenth words of his book: "Galileo Galilei, one of the earliest and perhaps *one of* the greatest of experimental philosophers of the modern world," etc.

The principal facts now established as to Galileo's dealings with the Inquisition are these: From 1612 and earlier the storm had been gathering. The Jesuits and the Aristotelians were bent upon crushing him, because he put them into the ridiculous position of refusing to see what was before their eyes. But all the cultivated people, the Grand Duke, Cardinal Maffeo Barberini (afterward Pope Urban VIII.), Cardinal

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Federigo Borromeo, and the like warmly supported him. On the 5th of February, 1615, an unsigned denunciation of him was lodged with the Inquisition. Early in December he voluntarily set out for Rome. On the 19th of February the Qualifiers for the Holy Office were called upon for an opinion substantially as to the Copernican proposition. On the 24th they reported it to be heretical. On the 25th, Cardinal Bellarmine was directed "to summon before him the said Galileo and admonish him to abandon the said opinion; and in case of refusal the Commissary [*i. e.*, the most Rev. Michelangelo Seghizzi] is to intimate to him, before a notary and witnesses, a command altogether to abstain from teaching or defending the said opinion, and even from discussing it; and if he do not acquiesce therein, he is to be imprisoned." Note that if he consented to "abandon" the said opinion there was to be no such intimation; and if there was an intimation, it must be executed before a notary and witnesses to be of effect. But Galileo at once agreed to abandon the theory. On March 3 a decree of the Inquisition was published, of which the preamble states that "Galileo Galilei, mathematician, had, in terms of the order of the Holy Congregation, been admonished to abandon the opinion he has hitherto held, and had acquiesced therein." On May 26th Cardinal Bellarmine delivered to Galileo a formal written statement to the effect that "Signor Galileo Galilei has not abjured [but only promised to *abandon*] . . . any opinion or doctrine held by him, . . . but only the declaration made by the Holy Father . . . has been communicated to him . . . that the opinion attributed to Copernicus . . . is contrary to the Holy Scriptures, and therefore cannot be defended or held." This obliged Galileo to abandon his researches and writings; and his health suffered seriously, although he was allowed to use the proposition as a "hypothesis."

Events led to his writing 'Il Saggiatore,' and in October, 1622, it was sent to a member of the Accademia dei Lincei, and was passed from hand to hand, and various corrections were suggested and accepted with a view to rendering it acceptable to the Inquisition. In February, 1623, the Papal imprimatur was attached to it, and later in the year it was published. Meantime, on August 8, Galileo's adherent and admirer, Cardinal Maffeo Barberini, had been elected Pope, taking the name of Urban VIII. In April, 1624, Galileo went to Rome and had six long interviews with this new Pope, endeavoring to have the prohibition of 1616 removed, but to no purpose. The Pope wrote officially to the Grand Duke and expressed his sense of what the world owed to Galileo's discoveries, as well as his great affection for him. Galileo returned to Florence, where he drew up a reply to an attack on the Copernican system. This was handed about in manuscript. The Pope, having been shown some passages, expressed his high commendation, and on another occasion remarked to a cardinal that the Copernican system had never been condemned as heretical, but only as rash. Such things convinced Galileo that he might find means to express himself; and in 1626, he began to write his famous 'Dialogo intorno ai due Massimi Sistemi del Mondo, Tolemaico e Copernicano,' which fully occupied him until May, 1630, when he repaired to Rome in order to find under what conditions it could be published. He had audience with the Pope, who assented to the publication under three conditions: first, the title must not be misleading (Galileo had proposed to call it 'Dialogues on the Tides'); secondly, the subject must be treated from a purely hypothetical standpoint; and thirdly, it must be wound up by the argument that since God is all-powerful, no facts can be a *necessary* proof of any independent facts. Certainly, no logician to-day can withhold his assent to that; and certain it is that this argument was absolutely vital to a good Catholic then, and so remains to this day.

There was nothing for Galileo to do but to make the required alterations of the title, the introduction, and the conclusion. The last was a most difficult task, for he held the Pope's opinion in supreme contempt, and yet it would not do so to treat him. He ought to have seen that this situation forced upon him, what good controversial rhetoric required, the genuine putting of himself in the Pope's attitude of mind, so as really to feel what the reasons were which weighed with the Pope. Otherwise, in attempting to restate that argument, he would give a travesty of it. If he found it impossible to conform to that condition, then the one course open to him was to betake himself to Venice, which republic was ready to receive him with open arms, and to protect him at the risk of an interdict, if necessary.

In the Dialogue, all the arguments (including the Pope's) against Copernicus are put into the mouth of a character called "Simplicius." There was a certain appropriateness in this, since the best arguments of the Aristotelians were drawn from the commentary on the 'De Cœlo' by the real Simplicius. Yet it was bad rhetoric. The manuscript was submitted to the papal censor, who, after causing it to be thoroughly revised by his assistant, all passages being altered that were at all objectionable (as Galileo had desired), finally very carefully examined it himself, and attached his imprimatur for its publication in Rome, with the understanding that an introductory and a concluding passage should be inserted by Galileo, such as the Pope had required. The affair having come to this stage late in June, Galileo returned to Florence.

The prevalence of the plague and a particular death hindered the publication in Rome, and in August Galileo decided to have the book printed in Florence. On communicating with the Roman censor, that dignitary said he must first see the complete book. But the plague had rendered the mails so uncertain that Galileo proposed to send instead only the new preface and conclusion, suggesting that some person in Florence be deputized to reëxamine the body of the work. This proposition was acceded to. The counsellor of the Inquisition in Florence went through the body of it with the minutest attention, and declared there was nothing in it that could give the slightest umbrage to anybody. The Roman censor neglected to attend to the introductory and concluding portions sent to him, until July, 1631, when the Pope personally ordered him to approve those parts at once, with permission to alter the wording in any way Galileo might desire, the substance remaining as it was. After another complete reëxamination in Florence, the final imprimatur was attached, and the book was published toward the end of February, 1632.

During the summer the Jesuits laid their plans deep to bring Galileo to ruin, and, in all that followed, the Pope (having, no doubt, come to believe that Galileo's statement of his argument was ironical and satirical) manifested an intense personal vindictiveness, which was never relaxed as long as Galileo lived, and whose effects were only a little mollified under such circumstances that not even his passion and the inherent littleness of his soul could hide from him the general contempt that he was in danger of bringing upon himself. In August, 1632, further sale of the Dialogue was forbidden, and a papal commission was appointed to examine the book. This commission reported during the next month, and in this report for the first time appears the statement that, in 1616, Galileo had been enjoined from ever holding, teaching, or defending the Copernican doctrine. It appears that the commission, upon looking at the records of the proceedings of 1616, came upon an unsigned *compte rendu* or protocol in the handwriting of the commissary-general of the Holy Office, who then acted as secretary, which failed to say that Galileo had submitted to the admonition of Cardinal Bellarmine; and which stated that the next step had been taken, namely, that said commissary had, before witnesses, enjoined Galileo, under pain of further proceedings, never to hold, teach, or defend the opinion. But nothing is said about a notary, nor are any other witnesses but Cardinal Bellarmine named. He had formally denied that any such thing took place, and was now dead. It has been supposed that this minute was a forgery. Favaro says that it cannot be so; but not being signed, it was without legal value. Nor does the minute, such as it is, represent the injunction to have been executed according to the form prescribed by the Holy Congregation; so that that injunction, if it had been so delivered, would be extra-legal. This document came as a complete surprise to all parties, and Galileo believed it to be a forgery. Pope Urban VIII. himself, who had taken part in the proceedings of 1616, had repeatedly discussed with Galileo the doctrine which that minute represented Galileo to have been forbidden to discuss. There is no doubt, therefore, that the proceedings of 1632 and 1633, basing themselves, as they did, on that minute, were contrary to the law of the Church.

On October 1, Galileo was summoned to appear during that month before the commissary-general of the Inquisition, in Rome. There were various delays, and he did not arrive at the Tuscan embassy in Rome until the 13th of February, where he begged leave to remain; and this was granted for the time being, under restrictions. On April 12 he appeared before the Inquisition. From that day until the end of the month he was held prisoner in the walls of the Inquisition, but was allowed his servant, and was well treated. Owing to the intense malignity displayed by the Pope, Galileo's friends, in fear for his life, advised him simply to admit everything, and to submit to everything. This he did at his second examination of April 28, and on his third appearance of May 10. On June 16

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the Pope held a meeting of the Congregation, at which it was decided to make Galileo confess his evil intention under threat of torture, and if that failed, to proceed further—that is, to burn him alive; for that is what it undoubtedly would have come to. Catholics may take such comfort as they can that this did not happen. On June 21 Galileo appeared once more, and, being threatened with torture, replied, "I am here to obey," and acquiesced in everything. He was then imprisoned. On June 22 he was made publicly to confess, and recant upon his knees. On the 6th of July he was allowed to retire to Siena, to the house of Archbishop Piccolomini, where he arrived on the 9th. He remained, however, wherever he was, a prisoner of the Inquisition all the rest of his life.

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*The Story of a Soldier's Life.* By Field Marshal Viscount Wolseley. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1903.

As far as the story goes, the reader will find this an interesting book. It describes a military experience which began in 1852 in the Burmese campaign of that year. Then follow the Crimean war of 1854-56, the Indian mutiny of 1857-59, the China war of 1860, the Red River expedition of 1870, and the Ashantee war of 1873-74; and if more be needed, there is promise of another volume to round out the author's career, and, presumably, to give an account of the fruitless expedition undertaken for the relief of Gordon in 1885. The pictures of military life under these widely differing climates and conditions are admirably drawn, the hair-breadth 'scapes are exciting enough, and it is only occasionally that the superabundance of detail becomes tedious. Apart from purely military events, moreover, we have an account of a shipwreck, of a visit to Japan in 1860, and of a residence of some years in Canada and the United States from 1862 to 1870.

Coming to matters of opinion, we are reminded of the student who endeavored to solve all the problems in mechanics which he could not understand by the action of the common pump, which he had completely mastered. Lord Wolseley's common pump is a belief that war is not what Sherman called it, but, on the contrary, a good and desirable thing in itself. This doctrine is reiterated in some form or other in almost every chapter; and from it flow, naturally enough, certain corollaries, to wit, that Wellington and Napoleon were the greatest men that ever lived; that no civilian should be appointed war minister, and that England should adopt compulsory military service and cultivate glory in order to avoid becoming "a jellyfish." Early in the first volume we meet the common pump: "Surely, war, with all its horrors, exercises a healthy influence on all classes of society. . . . War is the greatest purifier to the race or nation that has reached the verge of overrefinement, of excessive civilization." A curious doctrine, certainly, but one that would appeal more strongly to the lay mind if Lord Wolseley had given a few instances of nations that have reached the verge of overrefinement and excessive civilization. And, to begin with, how does he define excessive civilization? Does any modern nation suffer from such a disease? Is there not, on the contrary, a wide discrepancy between the results actually achieved by civilization and the aspirations and ideals of the wiser and better members of all modern communities? Has it not always been so in the past also? And even if it were otherwise, and nations really suffered from this imaginary disease, can any one who has read history imagine that the situation would be improved by war?

The following quotation gives another frequently recurring outcrop of the main doctrine: "These men die that England should be great, and they die for her without a murmur, and yet it is their valor and their self-sacrifice that enable home tradesmen to make fortunes, live at ease, and to marry their sons and daughters into gentle families." This is, of course, ridiculous claptrap. As a matter of fact, men become soldiers partly from innate love of fighting and partly because they are incapable of success as "home tradesmen," or in any other calling. They die on the field of battle because that is one of the hazards of their business; but it would be safe to say that Tommy Atkins is more interested in beer and tobacco than in anything so abstract and intangible as the greatness of England.

Passing from the main doctrine to the corollaries, there is an interesting statement made about Wellington which acquires additional importance from recent discussions of the vexed question of Waterloo. There is said to be written evidence to show that, some years before his death, when there was danger of war between France and Prussia, the King of Prussia asked him to take command of his army, owing to the dearth of first-class military talent in Berlin. The Duke was willing, but the danger passed, and the war was deferred for a generation. Of Napoleon, Lord Wolseley writes, with curious inconsistency, that impartial men must put him by himself and in front of all human beings; and then adds that "his course of action was absolutely untrammelled by any fixed laws of right or wrong or any consideration for others."

The dreadful results of the unprepared condition in which England entered upon the Crimean war give Lord Wolseley a good opportunity to preach on the folly of allowing a civilian to direct military affairs. He also condemns in strong language the incapacity of the English officers of that period, who acquired their rank under the purchase system and by family influence, without adequate training. The only war minister for whom he has a good word to say is Mr. Cardwell, who abolished the purchase system in 1873, and to whose scheme of an army reserve he gives the credit for England's ability to put 200,000 men in the field during the Boer war. In 1862 Lord Wolseley paid a visit to the Confederacy, and here again he found a notable example of the disastrous results of civilian control. His theory is that if Lee had not been overruled by President Davis the issue of this conflict might have been different. Lord Wolseley's ideas about this country and its inhabitants have evidently undergone considerable change in the past forty years. During the war his sympathies were strongly in favor of the South, and he was much impressed by the feebleness of the Northern generals. Since those days many things have changed, and he has reached the conclusion that the American army, so far as its members go, is the finest in the world. He believes that the future of the world lies between the Chinese and the people of the United States, and in regard to the latter he is good enough to express the following noble sentiments: "Thank heaven they speak English [this is a specially gratifying admission], are governed by an English system of laws, and profess the same regard that we have for what both understand by fair play in all national as well as all private business."

Of wit and humor Lord Wolseley is not prodigal, but he tells a good story of Soyer, the celebrated French cook, who was sent out to the Crimea to give soldiers lessons in the culinary art. It seems that he had had an ill-tempered wife, and when she died he placed over her grave a stone with the simple but significant inscription: "Soyez tranquille." Another bon-mot is the message sent by Lord Clyde's A. D. C. after the relief of Lucknow: "Nunc fortunatus sum," presumably to be rendered, "I am in luck now."

On page 2, volume ii., we are told that Lord Clyde supported the candidature of Sir William Mansfield for command in the China campaign, but at page 5 it is stated that the question was left to Lord Clyde's decision and that he wisely made choice of Sir Hope Grant. We note, also, a few misprints: Guatma for Guatama; Staunton for Stanton; Westpoint for West Point.

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*Benjamin Disraeli:* An Unconventional Biography. By Wilfrid Meynell. With forty illustrations, including two photogravure plates. D. Appleton & Co. 1903.

Mr. Meynell is right in calling his life of Disraeli unconventional. To accord with the conventions of biographical writing, it would need to be rearranged, if not rewritten. To say nothing of the author's style, Disraeli's "last days" come before his "early travels," and we have a hundred and fifty pages of "his talk from youth to old age" before we reach any narrative of his public life. This gives the whole volume a disorderly and disconnected effect, which is the greater pity because it really contains materials for an excellent picture of Disraeli. But Mr. Meynell is altogether too hurried as well as too extravagant and too partisan to do justice to his subject. He speaks of himself in a wild dedication as a "Dizzy-worshipper," and so he is. But worshippers are not necessarily good biographers. For one thing, they are apt to be deficient in a sense of humor, and to our mind no one can possibly write well about Disraeli who has not a very strong sense of the humorous. Nevertheless, Mr. Meynell has, we think, done Disraeli's memory a good turn, for he has given us pretty much everything that he could collect about him, and, now that party rancor is at an end, most that remains of Disraeli is entertaining and amusing, or at least curious.

With every new life of him it is the custom for hostile critics to endeavor to construct some plausible theory to account for his amazing political success in becoming the statesman of the latter-day English Tories, although he was an alien, a complete *novus homo*, an adventurer, and a Jew. Mr. Meynell's theory seems to be that he was really a man of profound political principles, and foresaw before even

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Carlyle or Ruskin that the hope of the world (and of the Tories) lay in a democratic humanitarianism applied by a patriot monarch. While the political economists, the Manchester men, the free-traders, were dreaming of a state of society in which liberty of contract should turn the earth into a garden, and the gospel of work should make even street beggars ashamed of being idle, Disraeli was, in 'Sybil,' touching the hearts of men with an appeal for charity, benevolence, philanthropy. His idea of government was always that it should lift up, make whole, strengthen, and support. If, in return, Government should always be supported by those whom it protected, was not this the true gospel? Is there a man with soul so dead that he will not turn with relief from Ricardo's theory of rent to 'Sybil'? Disraeli's novels were really "novels with a purpose," and his career from first to last illustrates what that purpose was.

This idea, that he was a far-sighted statesman with a great end in view, is developed by Mr. Meynell, and fortified with many extracts. To those who, under Gladstone, fought him, there was, of course, nothing in it. A theory much easier to sustain is that Disraeli had no purpose save his own aggrandizement; he certainly disclaimed with considerable vehemence all moral aims in politics.

"Moral means," he told the electors of Bucks, he had seen a good deal of, and, "being naturally of a thoughtful temperament, I have been induced to analyze what moral means are. I will tell you what I have found them to consist of. I have found them to consist of three qualities—enormous lying, inexhaustible boasting, intense selfishness."

In those words the reflective author of 'Contarini Fleming' probably spoke his exact thoughts. We are not surprised to find that Mr. Meynell attributes to that early novel great biographical value. The fact is, that there is just this amount of foundation for Mr. Meynell's theory of Disraeli's early purposes: like most other ambitious men, he liked to think of using power, once attained, for the good of the public, and, like most other men of the world, he looked upon politics as a game, not as a field for self-devotion; like any great sceptic, he was nauseated by professions of morality. For such a man a reconstructed society, with a benevolent despot at its head and a contented and prosperous commonalty benefiting (with the aid of a wise and far-seeing vizier) by his benevolent rule, was a pleasing dream from youth up. He knew, too, how it was to be brought about: first, by humoring the monarch, next by humoring the commonalty—by giving them votes, sanitary drainage, short hours, imperial spectacles; whatever was necessary. He unquestionably foresaw the future very clearly, and how coming events might be used to his own advantage.

Mr. Meynell devotes a good deal of space to the old charge with regard to Disraeli's behavior to Peel, and throws some new light upon it, or at least puts the matter in as good a light for Disraeli as it can be put. Disraeli wrote to Sir Robert Peel in 1841 an almost cringing letter, begging that he might not be left "unrecognized," and that he might be saved "from an intolerable humiliation" by receiving some office from the Ministry. It was a letter of some length, and contained a suggestion that the writer had enrolled himself under the "banner" of Sir Robert "at the instigation" of a member of the latter's Cabinet. Sir Robert, in reply, stated his inability to comply with the request, and emphatically denied the supposed agency of any member of the Cabinet, or any authority from him. The correspondence was hardly one likely to be forgotten on either side. Subsequently Disraeli engaged in the bitterest attacks on Sir Robert Peel, and, in 1846, was brought to book by the latter, who, in a speech in the House of Commons, said that his opponent's views of his (Sir Robert's) character were the more surprising as he had been ready to take office under him, "thereby implying the strongest proof which a public man can give of confidence in the honor and integrity of a Minister of the Crown." Disraeli replied with a categorical denial that he had ever made such an application, and there the matter stands. The theory of the Peelites was that, the letter being a private letter (as it most certainly was), Disraeli felt that he could safely deny it, for Sir Robert Peel was a gentleman and would never produce it to contradict him. Mr. Meynell, on the other hand, says, without giving his authority, that Sir Robert searched for the letter and could not find it; and certainly, if a private letter could be referred to in debate, it could and indeed should, if possible, have been found, and, without being actually made public, have been brought to Disraeli's notice. Had this been done, Disraeli must at least have offered a very humble apology. But what are we to think of his bold denial? The question is left by Mr. Meynell without an answer.

We doubt very much whether the historian of the future will take such episodes as this too seriously. Disraeli himself did not regard either consistency or truth as Sir Robert Peel did, and it is impossible to take up one of his novels nowadays without perceiving the same theatrical temper and tendencies which are so continually illustrated in his political career. In his public utterances he often seems to give what he does a turn for the express purpose of making the serious side of it ridiculous. Thus, on December 20, 1874, he writes to Tennyson offering him a baronetcy, and begins: "Dear Mr. Tennyson: A Government should recognize intellect. It elevates and sustains the spirit of a nation. But it is an office not easy to fulfil," etc. A week later he writes to Carlyle, offering him the order of the Bath, and begins: "Sir: A Government should recognize intellect. It elevates and sustains the tone of a nation. But it is an office which adequately to fulfil," etc. These letters, which in juxtaposition look as if they were filled in upon the skeleton of what lawyers call a "common form," sound also as if, in writing them, Disraeli was saying to himself, "What a farce we three know it to be!" Again, read the following account of his ancestry given by him to the world. After mentioning his grandfather, he says

"his ancestors had dropped their Gothic surname [what this surname was is not mentioned] on their settlement in the Terra Firma, and, grateful to the God of Jacob who had sustained them through unprecedented trials and guarded them through unheard-of perils, they assumed the name of D'Israeli, a name never borne before, or since, by any other family, in order that their race might be forever recognized."

This is as good as anything in 'Codlingsby.'

It is as a wit that Disraeli will no doubt live longest. His wit was not only amusing, but wise; he never said anything in a commonplace way. Mr. Meynell's book is full of his sayings. His summary of the controversy on the position of dogma in the church is one of the best. It was, if we remember right, to Dean Stanley that he said, "After all, no dogmas:—no deans." In his lifetime most of the intellect, enthusiasm, and ardor of England was on the other side. This made his wit and his wisdom both priceless to the Tories.

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*The United States in Our Own Time:* A History from Reconstruction to Expansion. Being an extension of 'The History of the Last Quarter Century.' By E. Benjamin Andrews. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1903. Pp. xxxviii., 961.

While nearly all of our historians have avoided the period since the civil war, Chancellor Andrews has, among other things, given much time and energy to a presentation of the last forty years of United States history. The present volume of nearly a thousand pages begins with a description of the United States in 1870, and ends with a complimentary mention of Mr. J. L. Bristow, leaving one with the feeling that the author must now regret not having waited for the Indian Territory "graft" and Mark Hanna's triumph. Between beginning and end one will find, put down in good order, but with slight inherent connection, a little of everything that has happened in the United States since 1870 calculated to interest the reading public. Facts of all sorts, little and big, from the growth of civil-service reform to the bicycle fad, are treated equally, and the reader with difficulty avoids the conclusion that in history one fact is "as good as another, and sometimes a good deal better." There is little effort to group events according to their inherent relation, and facts are dragged in frequently for no apparent reason. No sustained intellectual effort is required at any point to follow the narration; one is well settled in a consideration of the general excellence of President Cleveland's Administration, only to be suddenly invited to observe the simplicity of his manners and to rejoice with him at his wedding. If this is more or less inevitable, it makes any serious effort at artistic integration of narration or historic subordination of details quite impossible. What we have here is thus not so much a carefully thought-out historical narrative as a sublimation of the newspaper files.

For the student, therefore, a juiceless record of events, like that prepared by the *Political Science Quarterly*, will prove of more service. But to the "general reader" Chancellor Andrews's book will prove not only very good reading, but of essential value, especially if the "general reader" is to include the rank and file of the Republican party. All of the history here presented is so recent as to come within the memory of many readers; some of it is so recent as to come within the memory of all. Most readers will thus have formed opinions (prejudices for the most part) relative to the political side of that history. Now the value of

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a book like that of Chancellor Andrews lies in the fact that it will come to such readers with the force of a new idea. They will find that men and measures which they have been accustomed to think of as representing the profoundest wisdom or the height of folly, represent neither the one nor the other; and this truth will be enforced the more readily since the author does not himself discuss or argue, but rather draws moderate and reasonable conclusions from the arguments presented by both parties. Many an admirer of Gen. Grant will be beneficially shocked to learn that the great general was far from being a great President; many a Republican will resent the insinuation that if Mr. Blaine was not an "unprincipled trickster," his record was nevertheless rather shady, and, in any case, the country was to be congratulated on the election of Mr. Cleveland. In dealing with the recent events of the last decade there is less possibility of reflecting sane second thought. In this connection it is interesting to note especially, since the author's position on the silver issue in 1896 is so well known, the high place among American statesmen which Chancellor Andrews gives to President McKinley.

Some 450 illustrations add to the interest of the narrative. The print is large and clear. The paper (conditioned by the illustrations, presumably) is of that particular badness that offends both the eye and the nostrils, and makes a book tiresomely heavy. The index is fair.

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*The Oxyrhynchus Papyri.* Part III. Edited by Bernard P. Grenfell, D. Litt., and Arthur S. Hunt, D. Litt. (Egypt Exploration Fund, Græco-Roman Branch. London: Boston, No. 8 Beacon Street.)

This portion of the Oxyrhynchus Papyri offers an unusual number of small surprises and unexpected revelations, though none are of first-rate importance; the private letters are piquant and interesting, the legal documents, in several instances, highly satisfactory and instructive. With the exception of the theological fragments, they all belong to the second century A. D., and they certainly enable us to reconstruct many features of the social life of that period with great accuracy and vividness. We know almost to satiety about the bargains and contracts of these village people, their wills and marriage contracts; we know the sort of letters they wrote, the kind of plays they delighted in, and the amount of money they spent on such amusements and festivities.

The greatest novelty, perhaps, is offered in the fragments of a farce that evidently belonged to the local or provincial stage. It represents a party of Greeks landed on some barbarian coast near the Indian Ocean, who fall in with a troop of savage women and their king, and escape by intoxicating their captors. The gibberish spoken by these barbarians is probably mere nonsense, though possibly embedding some relic of Pali, or Prakrit. There is a heroine, Charition, who "longs to see her father's face once more," and discourses pious sentiments as she quits the temple where she had taken refuge; there is also a very clownish buffoon who makes merriment with an unmentionable catchword not disdained by Aristophanes. However, the piece has plenty of bustle and stir, and is by no means destitute of literary merit. It shows us the taste of the "provincial" stage of the period, while the plot travels outside of the line of classic tradition in comedy, for the incidents are derived from the old Greek popular romances, and the situation of the heroine appears to be similar to that of Antheia in the romance of Xenophon of Ephesus. The *verso* of the same papyrus is part of a little mime which duplicates the motive of one of the cynical sketches of Herondas—the vengeance of a jealous mistress on the slave who repels her advances. This unpleasant personage also plots the murder of her husband by enticing him for a pretended reconciliation which is to close with dinner and poison—a crime which was repeated in Vermont a few days ago. The counterpart of this mime in real life is indicated in the speech of an advocate (A. D. 130) who defends a certain Hermione from the charge of fraud and poisoning.

But the general impression given by this slice of life cut from the heart of a rustic province is far from gloomy or repulsive or discreditable; it is, on the contrary, rather suggestive of a humane and just reign of somewhat obtrusive law and order. We have, for instance, further record and proof of that perpetual activity and free agency of the women so often noted before. We have a complete marriage contract (A. D. 127), in which, besides many other provisions of perfect equity and equality, it is stipulated that the bride may withdraw her dowry and keep her children if any difference arises with her husband leading to a separation. In a similar Tebtunis contract, the woman had, if anything, the best of the bargain. We have, again, the vivid little picture suggested by a coroner's report (A. D. 182). This tells how a little slave boy, eight years old, leaning out of an upper window late in the afternoon to see the castanet players and the female dancers, fell into the court and was killed. His master prays the Roman Strategus to send his official, the "public physician," to view the body "that it may receive proper laying out and burial." There is something touching and imposing in such a proof of the omnipresent eye of Roman imperial law, condescending to take note of this little sparrow's fall.

The private correspondence is full of vivacity and human nature. There is an invitation to dinner and to a wedding which might be engraved by Tiffany. A charming letter from Cornelius to his "Sweetest son" warns him not to get in anybody's way at home, but to mind his books and study hard "so as to profit by them." A model dunning letter, compact of sweetness and firmness, demands the payment of a sum long overdue, beginning: "My dearest Hatres: . . . I saw you the other day in Paomis and wanted to greet you kindly, but you dodged me because of your guilty conscience." There is a maudlin and passionate epistle from Serenus to his sister (probably also his wife), so perturbed and topsy-turvy that it might have been taken from 'Alice in Wonderland': "Since you departed I have not bathed nor anointed myself for a month. I have been in mourning, weeping by day and lamenting by night," etc. This Oriental effusion is written with phonetic misspelling, and inflections which show that the vulgar language is already far on the road toward Romaic, or modern Greek.

The most important of the new classical fragments contains nearly sixty complete lines of the "Kolax" of Menander, and gives a glimpse of the parasite and the *miles gloriosus* whom Terence borrowed for his "Eunuchus." The brief passage (No. 412) from the "Κεστοί" of Julius Africanus is rather remarkable for the luck with which it settles some moot questions, conveys some new information, and at the same time reveals the author's naïve standards of Homeric criticism.

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*The Moth Book.* A Popular Guide to a Knowledge of the Moths of North America. By W. J. Holland, D.D., etc., Director of the Carnegie Museum, Pittsburgh, Pa., etc. With forty-eight plates in color photography and numerous illustrations in the text, etc. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1903. 4to, pp. xxiv., 479.

This is a companion volume to 'The Butterfly Book' of the same author, and a much better production from both the literary and the scientific standpoint. It is a considerable undertaking to give even a superficial representation of our 6,000 species of moths in a single book, and requires judicious selection. That the book covers the ground so well is the best compliment it can have. Naturally, the groups of smaller moths are least represented, because less known and collected; but even here a very fair general view is given. The limitations of the three-color process appear sharply in the plates: the larger, boldly marked species look natural and characteristic; the small species, with delicate markings and colors, are blurred and indistinct, sometimes unrecognizable. The text figures are of two kinds—very coarse stipple work and half-tone or woodcut blocks largely obtained from the United States Department of Agriculture. The rough paper used is altogether unsuited for the half-tones, and most of those are spoilt; the woodcuts fare a little better, but the presswork is not of a character to do them justice. The stipple work comes out fairly well, but the figures so prepared are mostly sketchy.

As to the text, it bears evidence everywhere of being written with reference to the figures, but for a popular work there is altogether too much quotation. Giving credit to sources of information is always in order; but when so large a percentage of the real information is sheer reproduction, the inference might be that the author himself knows very little about the subject. In the case of the hawk-moths, the author abandons the principles heretofore followed by American entomologists, and adopts a system based upon an exceptional attitude toward specific types. The result is that while the figured species are quite recognizable, they are often under altogether unfamiliar names. It is not likely that this system will be generally adopted by our entomologists, and its first use in a professedly popular work is a distinct misfortune.

The descriptive work is prefaced by an introductory chapter on classification, structure, and methods of preparing the specimens. There are a number of "digressions and quotations" in the work, some original, some quoted, which interrupt agreeably. Finally, the author should be credited with having produced a decidedly useful work, whose influence upon the progress of insect study is bound to be good.

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The table of contents, list of illustrations and index are unusually full and well prepared, and add materially to the value of this publication.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barker, Wharton. The Great Issues. Philadelphia: No. 119 South Fourth Street.
Billaudeau, Armand George. French Idioms, Sayings, and Proverbs, with their English Equivalents. Revised by A. Antoine. Paris: Boyveau et Chevillet; New York: G. E. Stechert. 7 fr.
Chronicles of a Pioneer School—The Litchfield (Conn.) Female Academy. Compiled by Emily Noyes Vanderpoel, and edited by Elizabeth C. Barney Buel. Cambridge, Mass.: The University Press. $3.50, postage 35 cents.
Cowley's Essays. Edited by Harry Christopher Minchin. (The Little Library.) London: Methuen & Co.
Culin, Stewart. A Trooper's Narrative of Service in the Anthracite Strike. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
Cunningham, W. The Growth of English Industry and Commerce in Modern Times. Part I., Mercantile System. Part II., Laissez Faire. Cambridge: The University Press; New York: The Macmillan Co. 25s. net.
Doctor Syntax in Search of a Wife. New ed. D. Appleton & Co.
Dwight, Elizabeth A. Memorials of Mary Wilder White: A Century Ago in New England. Edited by Mary Wilder Tileston. Boston: The Everett Press Co. $2.50 net.
Egan, Pierce. Life in London. New ed. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
English Miracle Plays. Edited by Alfred W. Pollard. Fourth ed., revised. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 7s. 6d.
Fouqué's Undine, with introduction by J. Henry Senger. American Book Co.
Gide, Charles. Principles of Political Economy. Translated from the French by C. William A. Veditz. 2d American ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Gosse, Edmund. Jeremy Taylor. (English Men of Letters.) The Macmillan Co. 75 cents net.
Hardy, Thomas. The Dynasts: A drama in three parts. Part first. The Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.
Harland, Henry. My Friend Prospero. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Herbst, Eva. Tales and Customs of the Ancient Hebrews. Chicago and New York: A. Flanagan Co. 35 cents.
Hitchcock, Ripley. The Louisiana Purchase. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Horace. Vol. II. Satires, Epistles, and De Arte Poetica. Commentary by E. C. Wickham. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Hulbert, Archer Butler. The Cumberland Road. (Historic Highways of America, Vol. IX.) Cleveland, O.: The Arthur H. Clark Co. $2.50 net.
Labriola, Antonio. Essays on the Materialistic Conception of History. Translated by Charles H. Kerr. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. $1.
Letters of Horace Walpole. Edited by Mrs. Paget Toynbee. In 16 vols. Vols. I.-IV., 1732-1760. Oxford; The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Lloyd, Mary. Elegies: Ancient and Modern. Vol. I. Trenton, N. J.: Albert Brandt. $1.50 net, postage 12 cents.
Lover, Samuel. Handy Andy. New ed. Appletons.
Meyers Grosses Konversations-Lexikon. Vol. V., Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Moore, Edward Caldwell. The New Testament in the Christian Church. The Macmillan Co.
Mosso, A. Fatigue. Translated by Margaret Drummond and W. B. Drummond. (The Science Series.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Munson, James E. First Phonographic Reader—First Dictation Book. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents each.
Nichols, Edward L., and Franklin, William S. The Elements of Physics. Three vols. Vol. I., Mechanics and Heat. Third edition, rewritten. The Macmillan Co.
One Thousand Poems for Children. Edited by Roger Ingpen. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $1.25 net.
Phillpotts, Eden. The American Prisoner. The Macmillan Co.
Poema de Fernan Gonçalez, con introducción por C. Carroll Marden. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. Cloth, $2.50 net, paper $2 net.
Publications of the Mississippi Historical Society. Vol. VII. Oxford, Miss.
Rumbold, Sir Horace. Further Recollections of a Diplomatist. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co.
Scribner, Gilbert Hilton. Where Did Life Begin? New ed. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.20 net.
Selections from Rabelais. Edited by C. H. C. Wright. The Macmillan Co. 60 cents.
Taylor, George Lansing. Asters and Golden-Rod. (Verse.) Eaton & Mains. $1 net.
Thorne, Guy. When It Was Dark. (Fiction.) G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Vignaud, Henry. The Real Birth-Date of Columbus. London: Henry Stevens, Son & Stiles.
Wagner, Franz von. Entwicklungslehre. Notes by Arthur S. Wright. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Winship, A. E., and Wallace, Robert W. The Louisiana Purchase. Chicago and New York: A. Flanagan Co. 60 cents.


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